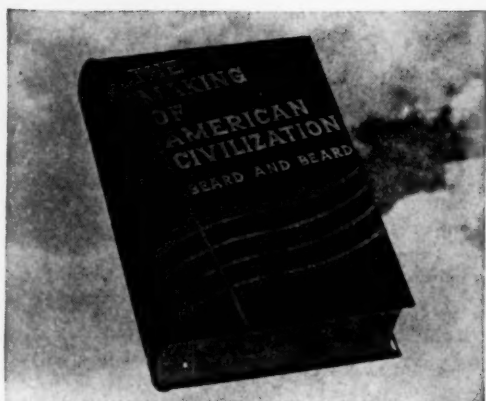


# SOCIAL EDUCATION

## CONTENTS

	PAGE
EDITOR'S PAGE . . . . .	387
TEACHING ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT . . . . . <i>Edgar Dawson</i>	390
NEBRASKA AND ITS ONE-HOUSE LEGISLATURE . . . . . <i>John P. Senning</i>	395
AN INTERNATIONAL-RELATIONS CLUB . . . . . <i>Alice N. Gibbons</i>	398
ARE ESSAY EXAMINATIONS OBSOLETE? . . . . . <i>J. W. Wrightstone</i>	401
EDUCATION FOR INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION . . . . . <i>Mrs Harrison Thomas</i>	406
SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE INTERMEDIATE GRADES . . . . . <i>Daniel C. Knowlton</i>	409
LET'S MOVE FORWARD . . . . . <i>Evelyn Plummer Braun</i>	414
TEACHING AMERICAN BIOGRAPHY . . . . . <i>Katharine Elizabeth Crane</i>	421
NOTES AND NEWS . . . . .	434
BOOK REVIEWS . . . . .	441
PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED . . . . .	459

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## Editor's Page

### YOUTH AND THE NATION

**S**OCIETY has an increasing responsibility for the education, welfare, and development of young people until they enter gainful occupations." Such is the conclusion of the American Youth Commission, which adds that formal public education should be provided until the age of sixteen at least, after which other and more flexible means may be employed.

The implications for secondary education are far-reaching, as the Commission makes clear, for the 65 per cent of the eligible population now in school and already taxing the adaptability of the secondary-school's resources, would be increased to include nearly all youth.

**T**HE Commission, accepting the view of Dr Harl R. Douglass in his recently published *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America* (Washington: American Council for Education, 1937. Pp. 137. \$1.00), urges "education for the common life, the core of which shall be the same for all," but "adapted to the varying abilities and aptitudes of youth." The proposal is easy to accept but difficult to apply. The unsuitability to a large number of pupils now in secondary school both of the classical curriculum and the high standards of achievement set by colleges has been generally recognized. Some sweeping changes and many more or less adequate com-

promises have been made. Unfortunately the changes have often taken the form of cutting and patching old subject matter rather than developing new programs for those who need them, together with the all too frequent abandonment of high achievement standards. It is doubtful that we have met the needs of the great middle group of pupils at whom we seem to have aimed. Surely we have far to go in meeting the requirements of pupils of low academic ability, and surely many pupils of high intellectual ability or of unusual talents have not been stimulated, challenged, disciplined. The resulting waste and maladjustments constitute serious problems. The CCC experiment may present an answer for part of the population; the extension of vocational education may aid others. Yet the differentiation desired by the Commission is impossible so long as equality of opportunity is interpreted to mean identical opportunity. Nor is making the traditional subjects easy an adequate response to those parents who value the social prestige of college attendance and who decline to accept vocational education for children who do not profit from classical programs.

Meanwhile the Commission continues with the activities outlined by its director, Dr Homer P. Rainey, more than a year ago. Commissioned "to develop a comprehensive plan for the care and education of American Youth" it proposed to study the

characteristics of youth, to reconsider the philosophy and function of the secondary school, to evaluate existing programs and experiments, to investigate typical situations carefully, and to study the influences to which young Americans are subjected. Professor Douglass' *Secondary Education for Youth in America* has already been published, as has Dr M. M. Chambers' survey of *Youth Serving Organizations*. Intensive studies have been undertaken in Maryland, where the state is co-operating, in Dallas, and in Muncie. The Civilian Conservation Corps, vocational education, rural education, and the needs of Negro youth are being surveyed, and various experiments in co-operative and articulated activity by educational, health, recreational, and crime agencies are being watched.

Some tentative findings have already been presented by Dr Rainey. A year ago he was able to report that in the face of delayed employment "youth are keeping their bearings remarkably well." This summer, with the warning that "many of the forces affecting our present situation are long-range; that is, they have their roots deep in the fabric of our society, and can not be changed in a short time by emergency or relief measures," Dr Rainey notes the increasing proportion of adults in our total population and the resulting difficulty of the young in finding employment; the complexity of modern society is overstraining existing agencies for citizenship training and for induction into employment. In the January number of the *Educational Forum* he reported that "there is practically no relationship between the type of training which youth receive and the types of jobs they enter," and that most high-school graduates are not trained for any skilled trade.

The CCC, the NYA, the FERA, and the WPA have accomplished much. The article in the *Educational Forum* points, however, to the need for further attention to mental and physical health, vocational guidance, and the reorganization and expansion of educational institutions, with greater atten-

tion to sex, the family, and the home. A federal employment agency and the coordination of existing agencies concerned with youth are recommended.

THE day is past—if it ever existed—when responsibility for formal training in citizenship can be left to classes in history, civics, or social studies, or, for that matter, to the schools alone. Information about citizenship, informed discussion through which desirable habits and attitudes and a sense of personal responsibility may be developed are indispensable. Good citizenship in school and the maximum participation by pupils in the conduct of school affairs are important. But schools occupy only a small part of the time even of those who attend. Schools can no doubt perform better those tasks in training for effective citizenship that have already been assigned to them. If, however, the needs of the present are to be met, either the school day and the school year must be greatly lengthened, and the activities of the school multiplied, or new agencies must be established to collaborate in the program which has been outlined by the National Youth Commission.

E. M. H.

#### A FABLE FOR EDUCATORS

ONCE upon a time there was a family called Social Studies, the members of which were so intermarried and so interrelated that it was hard to know who was who. The various Secondary branches of the family lived along a country lane in homes that, although old and patched looking, were still dignified. At the entrance of each, rusty nameplates swung in the breeze: History, Geography, Economics, and Civics.

If we were to visit the Secondary Social Studies, we would find them all very busy. You see, they spend practically all of their time housecleaning and rearranging the furniture, for they are always expecting a visit from the Colleges. Now the Colleges have a very different standard of living from



our Secondary friends, who are constantly striving to live up to them; but, no matter how they rearrange their houses, they never seem to suit the Colleges.

"I think your Problems of Democracy Course looks horrid, right at your High School Exit," and "Your World History is just too, too modern to suit my taste," were some of the mortifying criticisms made when the Colleges last visited the Secondary Historians. But this has been going on for years. Perhaps that is why every little Historian learns, even before he can read from sources, that he must do his bit to keep up with the Colleges.

One day, while the Secondary Historians were trying to find a suitable place to put Ancient History, little Johnny Historian heard a terrific noise, which the others disregarded. He looked out of the window. Above, on the educational horizon, loomed squadrons of planes and dirigibles, the latter being a new model of educator craft (which, however, still used the old fashioned gas and hot air to keep them afloat). He recognized them at once as the Fusionists and Frontier Thinkers and watched them with growing horror as they dropped their bombs in the vicinity. His cries brought old Columbiana Historian away from the group that was trying to decide what to do with a piece of overstuffed curriculum. When Columbiana saw what was going on, she took little Johnny in her arms and soothingly said, "My, my, look at the naughty Frontier Thinkers, trying to destroy our Social Studies Lane. What *will* they think of next? Aren't they the cutest things? There, there, now, don't cry! They do make a lot of noise, but they'll get tired soon, and then they'll play a new game!"

"And will the Fusionists go away, too?" asked Johnny, appearing a bit calmer. "Of course, dear; they've been making a nuisance of themselves for years. I know; I was close to them for four years, before I married into the Secondary branch of your family. Just don't pay any attention to them, and they'll go away."

Johnny, unconvinced, left Columbiana and ran over to two of the older men. "I've got an idea!" he cried. "Let's make some anti-aircraft guns and kill all the Frontier Thinkers and Fusionists. We've got lots of gunpowder."

The old ones smiled at each other over his head, enjoying his childish prattle, but Columbiana, losing interest as she remembered that she hadn't decided where to put Modern European History, said sharply, "Oh, Johnny, that's enough foolishness. Can't you see we're busy? Go out in the yard and play with your school system!"

Johnny went.

But the bombardment continued. Finally, one day the enemies scored a direct hit in Social Studies Lane and fragments of History, Geography, and Civics went up into the air with a dreadful explosion. The Economist family was only a little shaken up, but all the Secondary Historians were killed. That is, all except Johnny, who was knocked unconscious.

WHEN he recovered his senses, he saw that the Frontier Thinkers and Fusionists and Curriculum Builders were working among the debris, carrying pieces to a nearby spot. He asked a friendly Fusionist what was going on.

"We are building a new apartment house on the site of Social Studies Lane. We're going to use as much of this material as we think suitable, and then we'll add some of our own. Why don't you help us? After all, you'll have to work to live. Come on, we don't mind having you."

Johnny looked sadly around him. Slowly he picked up a tiny piece of Roman Contributions, an armful of Community Problems, and a large fragment of Comparative Standards of Living. With his burden he walked toward the newest Discussion Group and began to help to Build The New Social Order.

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Clifton Park Junior High School  
Baltimore, Maryland

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# Teaching Administrative Management

EDGAR DAWSON

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**A**LTHOUGH the title for this paper is taken from the recent *Report of the President's Committee on Administrative Management* (Washington: National Emergency Council, 1937), the paper does not undertake to deal with methods of administrative management, but only with some questions of its importance and some methods of widening the understanding and support of an efficient program for choosing and controlling those individuals to whom is entrusted the actual administration of government in its manifold aspects. No sustained, well organized, and useful action will be taken to give our government intelligent organization and to keep it going, until the thoughtful people of the country know more about what constitutes good administration and make a firmer demand that it be provided. The civil service reform campaign that was waged in this country for more than fifty years is now generally understood and approved by a large number of people, in spite of the very real political influence that con-

In the midst of hot discussion of political theory and law, the head of the department of history and social science at Hunter College points out that, in the last analysis, the administration of the laws by individuals in Washington and elsewhere will decide the success or failure of our democratic experiment. He has a theory and a plan for the improvement of that administrative management.

tinues to retard it throughout our government service. Yet, even as far as it was really successful, that reform was distinctly limited in its scope, for it was the negative one of keeping spoilsmen out of public office; and moreover it was concerned largely with the thousands of minor positions rather than the higher ones, which continue to be wholly political in most state and national organizations. The situation may be compared to training the private soldiers of an army, while at the same time the planning of campaigns and directing the fighting is entrusted to transient politicians. What country would expect to survive such a system? Who would be willing to volunteer in such an army?

The report and detailed recommendations now (June 1937) before Congress deal with personnel management in government, fiscal management, planning management, administrative reorganization, and the accountability of the President to the Congress. It was prepared by a committee of three men, who, with others, have completed an extended and generously financed study of administrative management and have published a dozen illuminating volumes including a summary called *Better Government Personnel* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1936). Our government has never been properly organized. All our recent Presidents have called attention to the fact, and most have made unsuccessful efforts to correct it. Now it is reported that "no action is likely to be taken on the President's recommendations for reorganization in the near future."

THE question of the policy and personnel of our civil service is perhaps the most important matter for the consideration of our country; and it is too much ignored. As the committee remarked at the end of its report: "The forward march of American democracy at this point of our history depends more upon effective management than upon any other single factor." This sentiment seems to be common to all students here and abroad who are seeking to use knowledge and experience in the effort to save democracy in these dangerous days. A dictator can order reforms or a democratic leader can obtain legislative approval for reforms; but neither can obtain actual reform without some kind of efficient machinery for administration and control. In a democracy the true basis for such administrative machinery lies in the education of the people—or that 10 per cent or so of the people who take the trouble to think and develop opinions. The sharpest of the opposition critics of the President's administration rarely object to the ends at which he aims; what they fear is the ability and experience of those on whom he depends for the administration of those aims. It has been said that a bungler is worse than a rascal for the rascal may steal, while the bungler may sink the boat.

In these United States there is being carried on a great social experiment in democracy, whose success or failure depends, in the last analysis, not on who makes the laws or even what laws are made, but on how the laws are administered. With natural resources beyond known limitations, no enemies on the frontiers, a population said to be reaching a point of stability, a federal Constitution without irremediable defects, a heritage of freedom and independence almost unique in history, there is nothing lacking but the will and the leadership to create the proper environment for a perfect scientific experiment to discover what political possibilities the human race really has. If only social education and guidance can "cull out the aristocracy of

virtue and talent and train it at the public expense for the solution of public problems," it may be that Jefferson's dream may come true.

#### EDUCATION FOR MANAGEMENT

ONE way of attacking the problem of the creation of such will and leadership is through education in the schools. Unless the argument on which we have built the most generously supported system of education in history is nonsense, it is one of the definite duties of the school system to teach the elements of government. It is difficult to define just what that phrase "to teach the elements of government" means. It probably does not mean teaching pupils to be excited over current events or even to solve public problems. It certainly does not mean teaching them a large body of detailed fact and information about political development and organization, though a reasonable number of facts seem to be necessary for intelligent thought and discussion. It does seem to mean bringing the more intelligent young people to see, among other things, some of the essential differences between a dictatorial and a democratic government and developing within them a mind and a will to create the kind of government they desire. This probably can not be done actually by persuasion in any direction but only by an intellectual cultivation that might be described as acquiring judgment based on knowledge that has been itself largely forgotten.

As a matter of fact the idea of efficient administrative organization is neglected. This is lamentably true among leading histories. One of the most attractive of the recent volumes on modern European history covers the political and cultural conditions of the last hundred years with little discussion of the development of administrative reform. It mentions almost every element of human interest from textile manufacture to Einstein's mathematics and the fine arts; and it touches on Great Britain's problems in India but makes no



mention of the great administrative inventions that grew out of that problem, or of the efforts of Thomas Babington Macaulay, the essayist and historian, to administer that civil service. Since its author and his treatment represent the best of our scholarship and breadth of sympathy, this book is used as an illustration of our general lack of realization of the seriousness of the situation. Another example is a textbook for advanced courses in government, among the most widely used. Out of a large book, the author gives less than three pages to the subject of civil service and administration. The recent Report of the Commission on History to the College Entrance Examination Board is a pioneer work, and its list of questions specifically states that it does not "pretend to exhaust the possibilities." Moreover this author may easily have misunderstood some of its implications. Yet from a somewhat careful reading of the list of questions offered as samples of the kind of knowledge properly to be expected of those prepared for college, he concludes that the writers of the report did not have in mind the need of teaching administrative organization and government.

**M**ODIFICATIONS of this general attitude will require certain fundamental changes. One is to obtain the inclusion in textbooks of description and discussion of government administrative management. Textbook writers and their publishers naturally want to offer what the schools at present will buy. This is but an illustration of conforming to what is supposed to be the public interest, and it is only to be remedied by changing the apparent public demand. Another necessary change is in the outlook of teachers. This presents an almost insurmountable difficulty. Where in the schools or the colleges are to be found enough persons who have "got democracy," as people used to "get religion," and who want to be learned apostles for its spread? Who will teach the teachers? The situation constitutes a circle of indifference. At what

point can that circle be broken most easily?

It seems possible that, if first-rate textbook writers took hold of such a story of human welfare, they might make of it something to interest young people. It may be that first some literary genius should read the literature and make a scholarly but also a dramatic story of it. He would naturally introduce episodes amusing and dynamic, like some of the stories of great battles or of diplomatic intrigue; but the story of the merit system seems to have in it possibilities of usefulness at least equal to those in the other stories. Then if, in the problems course, emphasis were laid on the fact that social problems are not solved but are administered, and that sensational superficial hysteria does no particular good, the attention of young people might be fixed on the one means of administering or managing social problems, which is to provide able, trained, experienced specialists who will deal with them in the spirit of science and public service generation after generation.

Out of such an education there ought to develop two groups of persons, both important to the development and support of a worthy civil service. One group, as private citizens, would for the rest of their lives continue to exhibit a keen awareness of the problems and responsibilities of such public employment and to support necessary measures to maintain and increase its efficiency. The other group would elect actually to adventure into this service, even though the rewards in money or public importance might not now be so great as the mistakenly ambitious might wish.

#### HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT

**F**OR both these groups an understanding of the history and development of the civil service is essential. It seems impossible to discuss the question without constant reference to the history of the movement for civil service reform in England. Graham Wallas said in *Human Nature in Politics* (New York: Knopf, 1921, p. 263) that the



creation of the British civil service "was the one great political invention in nineteenth-century England." One wonders why he was so modest in his statement. Few great political inventions have been made in all history, representative legislatures, executive leadership under control, the executive budget, an independent judiciary with security of tenure, home rule, federation of non-homogeneous units. Let those who are wiser add another half-dozen really great democratic political inventions. The short ballot will be cited, and this writer believes that movement has been one of the most important in this country; but it is a negative movement, as was the early civil service reform movement—to remove abuses that even the charitable might call idiotic.

As Wallas said, like other great inventions this one grew out of necessity. In 1833 Macaulay introduced, in a bill to renew and revise the charter of the East India Company, a provision that its cadets must be selected on the basis of open competitive examination. This provision was a terrible jolt to that ancient octopus of trade; and the reform had to wait until the next revision of the charter, twenty years later, when it was adopted. Macaulay's brother-in-law, Sir Charles Trevelyan, co-operating with him and with others, reported a survey of the home service that revealed scandalous conditions and recommended the merit system for this service. It is easy to imagine the furor aroused by so radical and so moral a proposal. When appointments to the army were discussed even Queen Victoria protested that it "reduced the sovereign to a mere signing machine"; but other objections were from more practical people, and for more practical reasons. One objector frankly accepted the fact that the patronage system was wholly immoral, but his plea was that the whole world was equally so. Not until Gladstone in 1870 took the bull by the horns and issued an Order in Council was any great progress made. His own view of the importance of the step is indicated by

his calling it his contribution to Parliamentary reform. Under the British government things can be done when the time comes; and all of the civil service was, at least superficially, reformed with one stroke.

It is common to say that twelve hundred men govern Great Britain, men whose names are never in the public press, men without any authority whatever, men who cause their suggestion to prevail by giving their political superiors the details of knowledge and experience accumulated by objective study and practice decade after decade, each generation bequeathing its accumulations to its successors. The Prime Minister and the Cabinet do what the civil servants tell them to do, as the intelligent patient does what his doctor says, or the intelligent prospective house owner does what his architect tells him. The system of government in Great Britain, which leaves a Cabinet in office only so long as it does not make a serious mistake, lends force to expert advice, as might not be so completely the case in a government by fixed term of office, whatever the folly or mismanagement of the officers.

**M**EANTIME, in the United States, Thomas Allen Jenckes, a representative from Rhode Island and a wealthy and forceful person, undertook, with Senator Charles Sumner and others, to convince Congress that it was possible for government to set an example of morality. As late as the sixties, bills were introduced only to meet with showers of ridicule and denunciation; but during the decade the movement grew, and honest, intelligent men joined in supporting it. Some of them liked to repeat Abraham Lincoln's remark that it was not the war he was worried about, but the postmastership in some remote village, and his more serious warning that the patronage question was as dangerous to our government as the Civil War itself. After two decades of struggle, the Pendleton Act was passed in 1883; and after another decade the New York state constitutional

provision was adopted, a model for drafters of such legislation.

Recent years have added positive ideas to this earlier negative reform to keep the rascals out of office. After the World War business interests began to study the personnel question. The labor unions, as well as other influences, were opening their eyes to the fact that hiring and firing is an expensive and wasteful practice. With their own enterprises, private employers could reform rapidly. Very soon most of the enlightened corporations turned to a personnel management in which human material is tested upon acceptance and, at once and thereafter, subjected to a molding process to develop that human material to its own highest point of capacity, with every effort made to place men in positions where their best faculties will be used best. Thus promotion became a matter no longer of reward but of fitting the man and the job to each other. This movement for personnel direction spread to public administration. The demand for career service developed, and the spotlight has been more directly turned on the upper divisions of the public service.

#### VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

SOME way must be found to grind the lessons of the great political inventions of mankind into the minds of the intelligent members of our community, so that they can not avoid thinking consistently with them; and some way must be found to guide some of the best of our secondary-school pupils into the public service as a career. Before the critic gets out his knife, he is asked to read a part of John Marks

Brewer's well known book, *The Vocational Guidance Movement* (New York: Macmillan, 1918), or some better and more recent one of similar import, though "more recent" does not always mean "better." The present author can not forbear to emphasize the fact that guidance, in school and out, is Socratic in method, asking questions and analyzing the answers. No one can teach without awakening interest. To try to do so is as foolish as to feed persons who have no appetite. They can swallow; but food often does them little good. This paper offers a suggestion only as a means to catch the attention of richly endowed young persons.

When these young persons approach the "commencement" of their responsible lives, their minds turn to "what they will do." If the writer knows anything about them, they are romantic and adventurous. They are not thinking entirely about making money or even living easy lives. If problems are presented to them, they want to know why something is not done to solve them. In their youth they think social problems can be solved, as do some older persons. They do not know that administration is the only treatment possible. If these young persons are shown the problems of a democratic society, as many of them are very thoroughly, and if then they can be brought to see that management is the way to approach these problems, it is very likely that a good many will want to enlist in the civil army engaged in this management for peace and prosperity. The process of teaching what the problems are and the method of managing them is the process of teaching civics, and it is one of the basic aims of teaching history.

# Nebraska and Its One-House Legislature

JOHN P. SENNING

**A**T the November election in 1934 Nebraska voters adopted an amendment to the state constitution providing for a unicameral legislature. As ratified, the amendment provided for a one-house lawmaking body of not less than thirty nor more than fifty members to be elected from single member districts on a non-partisan ballot; fixed the total annual salary at \$37,500; retained biennial sessions unless otherwise provided by law; designated the lieutenant-governor as presiding officer of the house; abolished the twenty-day limit for the introduction of bills; set up the proviso that the final vote on passage of a bill shall not be taken until a lapse of five days after its introduction or until it has been on general file for final reading and passage for at least one legislative day; required a record vote on any motion upon the request of any member; and charged the legislature at its session in 1935 to district

the state in accordance with the membership determined by that body.

**R**EGARDLESS of the fact that the amendment had been approved in the election by a conclusive vote, it was evident that the legislature of 1935 approached the problem of determining the size of the legislature and the apportionment of the state with no enthusiasm. Nevertheless there was no alternative. The mandate of the people had to be carried out. Each house appointed its own special unicameral committee. Opposing views between the senate and house as to the size of the membership vitally affected the method of procedure to be followed in determining the apportionment. The thirty-three senators favored a small unicameral body. On the other hand most of the one hundred representatives preferred the maximum of fifty. The arbitrary adoption of fifty members would have given the more densely populated eastern section of the state a decided advantage in representation over the sparsely populated western section. These complications finally persuaded both house and senate committees to follow the experimental method of ascertaining what number of single member districts would result in the fairest distribution of representation between the east, or urban section, and the west, the agricultural and grazing section, and thereby fix the size of the one-house body. Extensive investigation and experimentation of combination of counties into districts indicated that a membership of forty-three would result not only in the most equitable dis-

The author of this article is a professor of political science at the University of Nebraska. In reviewing Professor Senning's book, *The One-House Legislature*, Phillips Bradley said, in the April issue of *Social Education* that the "Nebraska experiment in reorganizing the legislature is by all odds the most important innovation in the structure of state government in this country in the last fifteen years. . . . This brief volume will be an invaluable guide to an understanding of the problems involved."



tribution of representation between the east and the west but also in the smallest margin of variation in the ratio of population per member in the several districts; and the legislature fixed the size of the unicameral lawmaking body at forty-three members.

THE first session of the Nebraska one-house legislature convened January 5, 1937, and adjourned four months later. The people of Nebraska as well as those of other states are now asking for an appraisal of the new lawmaking body. Naturally it would be fairer to defer a final judgment of the functioning of the legislature until after a second or a third session, but a few general observations may be ventured at this time.

The feature that has attracted the most widespread interest is the effect of the non-partisan election of members of the legislature. In Nebraska non-partisan elections are familiar to the voter. Their use has gained the support and approval of the majority of the electorate. Contrary to the predictions repeatedly voiced during the campaign for the adoption of the one-house amendment, neither one nor the other of the major political parties gained a preponderant control of the lawmaking body, and there is no evidence available that party machinations had any influence in the election of its members. If such influence had been strong, it would be difficult to account for the even strength of twenty-one Republicans and twenty-two Democrats in the 1937 session. There seemed to be a sincere effort on the part of members of the first session to be non-partisan as lawmakers. To political observers from states where party cohesion is strong such a statement might seem striking, but in Nebraska strict party votes on social and economic questions have seldom prevailed. Votes on measures reflect conservative and liberal viewpoints rather than political faiths. The non-partisan feature of the unicameral legislature has given a balanced represen-

tation not possible in the past. Moreover the attention of the voter is focused on the member and his actions rather than upon party affiliation. Election upon a non-partisan ballot resulted in a uniformly better personnel as compared with recent bicameral legislatures. In legislative deliberations members are freed from party subserviency and from executive control, and such liberation enables them to concentrate attention upon the merits and demerits of proposed legislation.

Another striking characteristic of the one-house legislature is the procedure which has been simplified to such an extent that, with the co-operation of the press, the public is able to follow accurately the successive stages of measures, a practice impossible under the bicameral system. Thus widespread public interest has been aroused in the legislature. In the adoption of carefully prepared rules of procedure an attempt was made to improve the technique of enacting laws. For example, the printing of each bill before the vote on final passage enables each member to know exactly the provisions of the measure for which he is voting.

ONE notable improvement in the unicameral lawmaking body is the committee system. There are sixteen standing committees organized on the basis of major fields of legislation rather than on the basis of individual subjects. Their membership varies from five to eleven. Until committee work is completed the afternoon of each legislative day is set aside for committee deliberations. Members serve on not more than two, or at most three, committees, and the schedule of committee meetings is so arranged that no member has any conflicts. Perhaps the most notable feature in relation to the standing committees is the public hearings. Each bill is subjected to a hearing. The time, place, and bills to be considered are officially announced at least five days before the hearing. Thus ample notice is given to all who desire to be heard



for or against a measure. Executive sessions are open to the press. The committee reports are accompanied by a statement setting forth the nature of the bill, the amendments, if any, and how they alter or affect the original bill. Of equal importance are the reasons given for the vote of the committee as expressed both in the recommendations and the records filed in the office of the secretary of state.

Observers from other states, of whom there were many, invariably expressed surprise as well as appreciation of the manner in which legislative deliberations were carried out on the floor of the house. There was neither confusion nor bombastic oratory. Instead there was a give and take in discussion. Members expressed their opinions without waiting for a signal from a leader. Discussion was direct and to the point. The responsibility of each member is an open book which may either break or make him in a subsequent attempt at reelection. The nature of the legislative tasks in the one-house legislature reveals the strength or weakness of the members, and individual ability counts for more than political connections. The small membership of the one-house lawmaking body makes it a workable and a genuine deliberative body.

**S**TATISTICAL summary of the first session of the unicameral legislature in Nebraska reveals that 579 bills were introduced during the ninety-eight-day session. Of these 226 were passed. The governor vetoed sixteen acts, and one veto was overridden by the legislature. The greater portion of the legislation was corrective and amendatory in nature. The legislature passed two proposals for constitutional amendments which will be voted upon by the people in 1938, one to repeal that section of the state constitution which requires double liability for stockholders in state banks and the other, which many contend is the most important action taken by the

lawmaking body, a short ballot proposal. Under the provisions of this short ballot proposal the governor, lieutenant-governor, auditor, and superintendent of public instruction would be elected for four-year terms. The three officers eliminated from the ballot—the secretary of state, treasurer, and attorney-general—would be appointed by the governor with the consent of the legislature. Also this amendment includes a recall provision for state officers. The social security program, passed by a special session of the legislature in 1935, was continued with the addition of the passage of an unemployment compensation act. The real estate mortgage moratorium was continued to March 1, 1939. Acts were passed for bindweed eradication, soil conservation, motor transport control, highway patrol, and budget control and accounting for counties. Another statute permits the voters of the state to cast an advisory vote on proposed amendments to the federal Constitution. Besides the creation of a legislative council and the office of a constitutional reviewer, another law relating directly to the legislature provides that, upon request of twenty-nine legislators, a special or annual session of the legislature may be called without dependence upon the governor. The most widespread disapproval of the action of the legislature was caused by its refusal to ratify the federal child labor amendment.

**A**T the close of the first session of the unicameral legislature, the members took stock of their failures and successes with a view toward improvement in the next session. They realize that Nebraska has made a major change in the machinery of the legislative branch of the state government and that the next step is to see that the new system continues to work for the public good. It can, however, be said at this time that to date the one-house legislature seems to fulfil the arguments advanced for its adoption.

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# An International-Relations Club

ALICE N. GIBBONS

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**A**N International-Relations Club in the East High School of Rochester was started in January, 1935, and has been unusually successful. An excellent standard has been set, and it seems probable that it may be passed on for many years. A good part of the credit for this has been due, undoubtedly, to a very popular and efficient faculty adviser, but nevertheless the boy and girl leaders have shown, to a remarkable degree, loyalty, steadfastness, energy, and enthusiasm. New officers are elected each term, and there has been a genuine effort to draw into the club activities as many young people as possible. At times fully half the membership have been busy in its many activities, so that the club is democratically alive and not simply kept alive by the enthusiasm of a few officers. Twenty-eight students enrolled as its first

For the thirty-eight years before her retirement last January Miss Gibbons was a teacher and for thirty-one years the director of the department of social sciences at East High School, Rochester, New York. She has also served as lecturer in education at the University of Rochester, as a member of the state syllabus committee of the Board of Regents, and as chairman of the committee on curriculum revision in Rochester. Her books, *Directed Study Guide in the Origins of Contemporary Civilization*, *Teacher's Manual*, and an accompanying *Test Book* are widely used.

members. Today two hundred and fifteen belong. The attendance at weekly meetings has never fallen below sixty and has reached as high as one hundred and twenty.

One of the desirable features of the management has been keeping the cost at a minimum. There are no regular dues. A volunteer collection is made occasionally, and the money received is used chiefly for buying stamps for the corresponding secretary. During the school year of 1935-1936 expenses amounted to two dollars and fourteen cents. In addition forty dollars was raised by the movie presentation of "The Lost World," and this money paid for a club banquet and dance at the end of the year.

**T**HE purpose of the club can perhaps be told best in the words of its student founder:

Several East High students have realized the necessity of having an organization to acquaint them with the present-day relationships among the various nations of the world, and particularly our own social, economic, and political problems in relation to those nations.

We are all well aware of the dire need at the present time of knowing and trying to comprehend a little the controversies among the nations and to discover the conditions which cause these misunderstandings.

To each one of us may come the necessity of deciding similar questions later on in life, and it is desirable for us to know how to go about it. Such an organization as this gives young persons an opportunity to express opinions on controversial questions, to hear the ideas of others, and as a result to form unprejudiced opinions.

The first meeting of the club is memorable for the heated discussion over the question of what form the club should take. Some students wished the club to become a political-science organization dealing with domestic as well as foreign affairs. The majority, however, favored a club to consider only international problems. In this case the majority was not right, for

gradually the International-Relations Club has assumed the character advocated by the minority. Domestic issues such as national defense, taxation, trade, and youth have been presented to the club, meeting with hearty approval of the membership.

In the latest annual report the club secretary said that success was due to co-operation and spoke enthusiastically of the interest and enthusiasm of the members as well as the value of the experience to the students. "It is only by seeing the students at work that one can begin to realize the value all the students receive from the International-Relations Club."

WEEKLY programs of the club have been of three types, talks by outside or faculty speakers, student debates, and discussion forums led by one of the members. The tendency of the club has been to grow self-reliant—more and more to depend upon the talent and resourcefulness of its own membership to produce interesting and profitable programs. No weekly meeting has been held just because it was time for it. There has always been some good offering that has drawn pupils to stay for the two hours after school, and, having stayed, they usually expressed themselves as thinking the meeting interesting and valuable. Three of the outside speakers have been persons recently returned from foreign lands, who could give their own impressions about conditions there, especially about Bulgaria, Russia, and Germany. One outside speaker was a student of psychology, who spoke on "Understanding Different Nationalities" and showed how varied was the way the different nations look at the same social or political problems. The faculty speakers have been chosen because of some special knowledge or opinion. One had recently returned from a stay in Italy and Yugoslavia, another told of his Great War experiences, a third, an enthusiastic legionnaire, pleaded for a larger American army, and an economics teacher gave a most interesting talk on the relation of the American farmer to inter-

national trade. At three meetings the club listened to faculty members who spoke on "What America Needs Most," "Election Dope," and "Colorado."

YET, while the outside and faculty speakers have been interesting, most club members think that the meetings in entire charge of their own members have been the most valuable. The steering committee in charge of programs has shown ingenuity in varying them, in choosing capable students, and in having a good many students take part. Each assignment has meant hard hours to study the facts and then many more hours to polish the speech or debate, for the club audience is critical and has been impatient with bluffers.

At one meeting, a young Ukrainian gave a talk on "Ukraine and the Ukrainians." Part of it was from study into his own racial history and part was a description of a recent visit to that country. At another meeting three students took the topic of "The Far East" and undertook to explain the relation of Japan and China to the world situation. During the year four informal debates were presented, "Pacifism *vs.* Militarism," "Nationalism *vs.* Internationalism," "Resolved, that Military Preparedness is Necessary for Peace," and "Resolved, that Self-Sufficiency is a Wise Policy for our Nation." For one of these debates, one student from Monroe High School and one from East High School took the affirmative side, and another from each school took the negative side. As may be noted, this arrangement was made to discourage any feeling of rivalry between the schools. For the Easter program a drama, "Peace and Good-will," written by the faculty adviser in co-operation with students, was presented in which the three characters were a munitions maker, a French soldier, and a German soldier. For one week's program the club departed from the world view and concentrated on American life, taking for its topic "Problems of Youth: Yesterday, Today, and To-morrow." For the Christmas



program a delightful idea was developed. Eleven students of eleven different racial extractions explained how Christmas was celebrated in the lands of their ancestors. Each student spoke first in the language of the group he represented and then translated his speech into English. They represented the French, German, Greek, Dutch, Japanese, Polish, Ukrainian, Arabian, Italian, Hebrew, and English peoples. It was one of the most enjoyed programs of the year.

The principal of the school soon recognized the earnest, efficient nature of the club and has steadily called upon it for assembly programs. It has put on, with honor to itself and the school, the programs for Armistice Day, Washington's Birthday, and Peace Day. Then during "Know Your School Week," the club put on a program for parents. It took the topic "Ethiopia" and presented four phases of the problem, Ethiopia's attitude, Italy's viewpoint, the relation of France and England acting through the League of Nations, and America's interests. One of the fathers was so enthusiastic over the work that he asked the club to present a program before the Kiwanis Club, a noon lunch club of business men. For this presentation the club chose for their topic, "Student Views of Existing Rule: Communism, Fascism, and Democracy." The program was liked so well by the men that, upon request, the same program was repeated before three other city organizations. In this way the club has reached out beyond the school to the city at large.

**W**ITHIN the school the club has carried on other projects. Through the competent work of its corresponding secretary, it has obtained from various agencies a great deal of material useful in the study of international relations and the study of the problems of world peace. The club has also put itself on the mailing list for any future material issued by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace and Peace Action Service, as well as several other

similar organizations. The club has already collected more than a hundred pieces of reading matter that fall within the scope of its activity. This material has been catalogued and filed in a case allotted to the club in the Social Science Laboratory.<sup>1</sup> A club librarian keeps it in order, and through the generosity of the club it is available for use to the entire school. In the past year a committee of club members made a "Peace Bibliography" of all material in the school useful for reading on that topic. The list was mimeographed and distributed to the entire school at the Armistice Day assembly. Since the attention of the club has been called to a number of important omissions in the list, the club has planned to appoint another committee to make a revision of the bibliography. There is not space to describe in detail other activities of the club, but we should mention a remarkable peace exhibit in an original form placed in the main hall of the school on Armistice Day, a peace ballot sponsored by the club, and a club paper.

**T**HUS, the International-Relations Club has already become one of the important institutions of our high school. Its meetings and projects are conducted with dignity, serious enthusiasm, a feeling of responsibility as world citizens, and at the same time a happy, youthful spirit of co-operation among its many members. The best students of the school are eager to become officers or appointees on club committees. It is an interesting indication of the spirit of the club that twice girls have been elected to the presidency, although fully half the members are boys. One can hardly over-stress the work that the club has done in helping to build personality and character and in providing a kind of training to lead and co-operate, as well as providing, through the many topics on its programs, aid for the regular work in history and civics classes.

<sup>1</sup> For a description of the laboratory by Miss Gibbons see *Social Education*, January, 1937.



# Are Essay Examinations Obsolete?

J. W. WRIGHTSTONE

ESSAY examinations have been attacked and defended many times since the advent of the new-type objective tests; and their faults as well as their virtues have been discussed by opponents and proponents. Much of the discussion has been based upon biased opinions supported by selected groups of facts. Yet in spite of the pros and cons of discussion J. M. Lee and David Segel found that 61 per cent of the high-school social-studies teachers in a recent national survey included one or more essay-type questions as well as new-type objective questions in the tests they constructed for their own use (*Testing Practices of High-School Teachers*, Bulletin No. 9. Washington: Office of Education, 1936, p. 7).

In this article an attempt will be made to present an impartial survey of some pertinent facts available at the present time. Some questions are here proposed around which a discussion of facts can be centered: (1) For what objectives do teachers use essay examinations? (2) What objectives of social-studies instruction should essay examinations measure most validly and most reliably? (3) What are the indictments

against essay examinations? (4) Can essay examinations be improved?

FOR what objectives do teachers use essay examinations? Two of the most extensive published studies on the objectives that teachers appraise by means of the essay tests were conducted by W. J. Osburn<sup>1</sup> and by Walter S. Monroe and Charles W. Odell.<sup>2</sup> In his analysis of the questions asked by teachers in the social studies Professor Osburn found that most of them required recall of more or less specific information relating to dates, events, and persons. Verner M. Sims<sup>3</sup> analyzed the "distinctly good" essay questions collected by Professor Monroe and Professor Odell and found that about 35 per cent were simple recall of information, 35 per cent were short answer, and only about 30 per cent were questions related to discussion, analysis, comparison, or organization and interpretation of facts. In spite of the fact that teachers place in their social-studies courses such objectives as ability to interpret facts, development of social attitudes, and similar purposes of instruction, most of their questions are aimed to measure recall of information. Recall and recognition of items of information are important, but such outcomes are definitely objective in nature and can be measured

The author of this article, a research associate in the School of Experimentation at Teachers College, Columbia University, contributed a view of "Recent Trends in Social-Studies Tests" to the April issue of *Social Education*.

<sup>1</sup> *Are We Making Good at Teaching History?* Prepared under the direction of W. J. Osburn. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Pub. Co., 1926.

<sup>2</sup> Reported by C. W. Odell, *Traditional Examinations and New Type Tests*. New York: Century, 1928.

<sup>3</sup> "Essay Examination Questions Classified on the Basis of Objectivity." *School and Society*, January 16, 1932.

more validly and more reliably by the new-type objective than by subjective essay-type tests. One conclusion from the studies on the use of the essay examination is that many teachers use this form of examination more or less indiscriminately for measuring any or all of the objectives of the social studies. This is an abuse of the essay examination.

**W**HAT objectives of social-studies instruction should essay examinations measure? Some general agreement exists among test technicians that certain objectives of the social studies—and other subjects of instruction—have not been measured validly by existing new-type objective tests. Professor Sims gave thirty-three students an essay examination of six recall and four discussion questions. Eight readers scored the recall questions with a key and scored the discussion questions by sorting them according to judgment of merit of response into normal distribution groups. All student responses sorted in each section of the normal distribution were marked with a predetermined score. The variation among readers was slight, and the reliability of the examination was .84. The recall questions and discussions did not seem to measure the same thing, for the correlation between their scores, when corrected for attenuation, was only .53. Ben Wood<sup>4</sup> has pointed out that the new-type tests are more reliable for measuring information than are the old-type essay examinations. On the other hand, he thinks that essay examinations are better adapted to measuring the student's ability to reason, to organize his ideas and material, and to express himself. The essay examinations are best adapted to the measurement of critical capacity and reasoning ability and, in some instances, for the expression of attitudes toward people, issues, and phenomena.

In the social studies, if objective tests are not available, essay questions may de-

fensibly be used to measure such objectives as: (a) an attitude toward some social, political, or economic phenomena; (b) organizing social-studies facts; (c) interpreting, evaluating, or discussing social-studies facts and data; and (d) applying social-studies principles to described events or situations. In measuring historical understanding and comprehension Robert B. Weaver and Arthur E. Traxler<sup>5</sup> list five kinds of essay questions, namely, casual reasoning and evaluation, comparison or contrast and evaluation, organization of materials, application of principles or definitions, and selective recall of facts. Except for minor points of interpretation, this list corresponds to the one previously stated. The scope and purposes for which essay questions should be used are gradually being defined by research directed toward their improvement.

J. W. Wrightstone has made an attempt to devise new objective test forms to measure some social-studies objectives usually assigned to the essay examination.<sup>6</sup> Techniques have been devised for measuring abilities to obtain, organize, interpret, and apply social-studies facts and principles. Experimental editions of the test battery are published by the Coöperative Test Service.<sup>7</sup> Some teachers, however, who wish to test these objectives with tests of their own construction will have to depend mainly upon the essay type of question.

Such questions as "Enumerate the grievances likely to lead to new wars in Europe" or "How has the League of Nations promoted peace?" seem to be tested more reliably by the new-type objective test, since recall of facts is the main purpose. On the other hand, questions like "Organize the following facts to show the reasons for recent bank reform" or "Interpret and

<sup>5</sup>"Essay Examinations and Objective Tests in United States History in the Junior High School." *School Review*, November, 1931.

<sup>6</sup>"Measuring Some Major Objectives of the Social Studies." *School Review*, December, 1935.

<sup>7</sup>500 West 116th Street, New York City.

<sup>4</sup>"The Measurement of Law School Work." *Columbia Law Review*, March, 1925.

evaluate the National Resources Committee report on the need and means for conservation of soil" would seem to be evaluated more validly by an essay-type question in most classroom situations.

**W**HAT are the indictments against essay examinations? Various indictments have been charged against essay examinations, and these indictments are all the more valid if essay examinations are used principally—as seems to be the case—to measure the recall of information. Yet the fact must not be overlooked that essay examinations have a real value when they are used to measure those qualities which can not be measured adequately by existing or available objective tests. First, the charge is made that essay examinations are more time-consuming than the new-type examinations. This is undoubtedly true, and, if the purpose of the teacher is principally to measure information, then such a result can be attained more efficiently and quickly by new-type tests. The second charge is that the range of information tested is narrower in essay than in new-type examinations. This charge, also, is true and practically any routine demonstration will prove it so. The more objective form of test allows a much wider sampling of items of information or knowledge. The third charge relates to the variations—unreliability and subjectivity—in the grades given by various readers to the same examination papers. Under the usual and unimproved conditions for grading essay examinations this charge has been well supported by the evidence obtained from the time of the Starch<sup>8</sup> study to the present. Variations in marks on essay tests are most frequently influenced by such factors as (1) disagreement among scorers as to what objective is being measured—that is, recall of facts, selection of facts, organization of facts, interpretation of facts, use of English, attitudes, neatness of paper, and the like; (2) disagreement regarding the weighing of

various elements of an answer; (3) differences in the standards of grading responses of varying qualities; and (4) differences in interpreting a question or its purport, usually because of poor construction or expression of a question.

**C**AN essay examinations be improved?

These variations in marks, however, can either be avoided or at least lessened, first, if each question in an essay examination is planned to measure one defined objective of instruction, such as an attitude or interpretation of facts, for which no valid and reliable new-type test is available; second, if some definition of the objective is accepted by all readers of the examination; and, third, if certain standards of measuring values are agreed upon by the readers. Reliable grading of the essay-type question has been reported by John M. and Ruth C. Stalnaker,<sup>9</sup> but certain improvements in essay tests are necessary. Questions must be so formulated as to require a definite, restricted answer for the objective, or objectives, to be tested. Such a general question as, for example, "Explain the reasons for the strike at General Motors in 1937" would be difficult to score reliably. If the question is restricted by a more elaborate phrasing, it lends itself to more reliable scoring. This question might be changed to read "Explain the reasons for the strike at General Motors in 1937 to show (a) the labor grievances of the employees; (b) the practices of the employer; (c) related national, social, and economic factors; (d) the rival labor unions; and (e) the method of striking.

The restricted essay question allows a clearer definition about what is to be scored and what is the intent of the question. Obviously, the sample restricted essay question just cited has the major intent of testing a pupil's ability to interpret the reasons for the strike according to five designated aspects. Some teachers might wish also to include in a mark such factors

<sup>8</sup>D. Starch, and E. C. Elliott, "Reliability of Grading Work in History." *School Review*, December, 1913.

<sup>9</sup>"Reliable Reading of Essay Tests." *School Review*, October, 1934.



as the pupil's organization of facts, social attitudes, and neatness, but such various concepts of what ought to be graded inevitably lead to disagreement among independent graders. The paper should be graded for one purpose at a time. Other purposes should be graded at separate readings of each paper and grades assigned separately. The teacher or teachers scoring the papers must first decide for what the question is to be marked; and an ideal answer must then be formulated, assigning a certain number of points to each significant part of it. Several papers must then be read independently by several readers to determine whether the grading scheme is workable. Better than only one ideal answer is an exhibit of several scaled sample answers, assigned intermediate scores according to their worth. It is recommended that in scoring most essay questions an eleven point scale from 0 through 10 be used.

One essential method, accordingly, for improving the essay examination is to omit questions that test mainly the recall of information. A second essential method is to determine the objective or objectives to be measured and to devise appropriate questions for each one. A third essential method is to use initially some scaled samples defined in terms of the kinds of pupil behavior and responses that one expects to solicit by the questions or statements, or, like Sims, to use a distribution of the papers into groups according to the normal distribution, provided the group of pupils is large enough. The initial use of scaled samples tends to make for more agreement among various readers. If these precautions are observed, and if the essay questions are so phrased that they describe to the student what responses are definitely solicited, then the objectivity of the essay examination can be improved. Also, essay questions might well be classified into types such as list, outline, describe, compare, contrast, explain, interpret, discuss, develop, evaluate, and summarize—the latter processes requiring more than simple recall.

SEVERAL examples of values assigned to pupil's answers from actual examination questions will, perhaps, illustrate, most concretely how more reliable and objective scoring of the essay question may be achieved. Pupils were asked to interpret, or draw conclusions from, the following facts:

In a study of twelve major industries the hourly earnings of labor in cents were as follows: 37 in 1917, 62 in 1920, 53 in 1923, and 54 in 1927. In these same industries the average working hours per week were 56 in 1917, 53 in 1920, 53 in 1922, 51 in 1923 and 49 in 1927. Industrial production of goods, using the index 100 as normal production, was 108 in 1917, 89 in 1920, 74 in 1922, 98 in 1923, and 109 in 1927.

Four answers were scored with the values noted:

*Value 10:*—In spite of fewer working hours per week and gradually rising hourly wages in twelve major industries, more goods were produced in 1927 than in any of the years preceding it, although production of goods varied from year to year.

*Value 5:*—Working hours per day are slightly less and the hours per week also. The production has been coming up.

*Value 2:*—The earning per hour and hours per week in certain industries rose with a slight increase in proportion to production.

*Value 0:*—People went to work with more vigor in those days and put their minds on the work.

These answers were rated independently on an eleven point scale from 0 through 10 by four teachers. The teachers were in practical agreement on the values assigned to the answers quoted, rarely deviating more than one point from the average of the group on any one answer. The full length test consisted of ten items of this kind. The total score on a pupil's examination varied slightly from teacher to teacher. The correlations of each teacher's scores with the average of the other teachers' scores were between .84 and .92, which reveal high reliability and objectivity in scoring.

Another sample question to illustrate the application of similar methods for improving reliability of scoring asked pupils to:

Compare or contrast the beliefs and practices, since the World War (1918), of the Republican and Democratic parties in regard to (a) their political platforms; (b) their political acts.



The following answer of a high school pupil would receive a high rating:

(a) Republican political platforms since the World War have always affirmed the belief in high tariff rates. Democratic political platforms have affirmed the belief in revising existing tariff rates downward.

(b) Republicans acted to protect the farmer against Canadian products by an emergency tariff, which passed in May, 1921, putting high duties on wheat, corn, meat, and wool. In September, 1922, the Fordney-McCumber tariff more than restored the high rates of the Payne-Aldrich act. Later the Hawley-Smoot act again allowed adjustment of tariff rates, usually upward. Other countries followed suit by setting up similar tariffs against foreign-made goods, including those of the United States. Democrats generally denounced the Fordney-McCumber tariffs, claiming they would increase our cost of living and cause other nations to erect similar tariffs against imports from the United States. The Democratic Congress after 1933 has acted to allow Secretary of State Hull to negotiate trade agreements with individual nations, revising the tariff on lists of products and obtaining reduction of tariff and quotas on various products of the United States.

**STUDENT Reactions to Essay Tests.** Another important aspect of the essay examination is the mind set and related modes of study that students use in preparing for tests. Harl R. Douglass and Margaret Tallmadge<sup>10</sup> found that students said that in preparing for an essay examination they reviewed and read generalities and trends, attempted to draw several important conclusions from tables, formulated personal opinions, and read notes on the texts and lectures carefully but without memorizing details. The same students testified that, when they prepared for the new-type objective tests, they paid more attention to minute details and tried to remember the exact words of the book and other specific points. George Meyer<sup>11</sup> has also carried on

<sup>10</sup> "How University Students Prepare for New Types of Examinations." *School and Society*, March 10, 1934.

<sup>11</sup> "An Experimental Study of the Old and New Types of Examination." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, December, 1934.

some studies of the examination set which students have and concluded that the essay question is of fundamental importance in learning and retaining sense material. He said, in effect, that if the teacher wishes students to recall isolated facts, when specific cues are given, a new-type objective examination set may be used with profit. If the teacher wants students to recall material in an organized fashion and to know facts when cues are not given the essay examination should be used in preference to any objective type examination. It is important for the teacher to determine what sort of reactions he wishes to test and to adapt his methods toward the outcome he has in mind.

**C**ONTRARY to the popular belief, it is more difficult to construct a valid and reliable essay type than new-type objective test. Essay examinations are by no means obsolete in social-studies instruction, but they usually need radical improvement, if they are to be more than a mirror for a teacher's preconceived estimates of pupil achievement.

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# Education for International Co-operation

## League of Nations Association

MRS HARRISON THOMAS

IT was evidence of the foresight of the League of Nations that so early as 1923 it recognized the need for instructing the youth of the world in the aims and ideals of the League. This policy crystallized in a resolution of the fifth assembly in 1924 which urged the states members to consider the need for "training the younger generation to regard international co-operation as the normal method of conducting world affairs." Obviously the generation which prepared the war had not thought in these terms. Following the war there was a natural revulsion against this age-old method of settling international disputes; but idealism cools all too soon, and leaders in League circles for twelve years have been giving increasing thought to the necessity for training the youth of the world in the spirit and the new methods of international co-operation, if it is ever to become the "normal method." Work in the League of Nations itself proceeded by the usual methods of assembly resolution, investigation conducted by the secretariat, and appointment of expert committees. All this, however, naturally affected only League members.

What of the United States? The League

The author of this statement of program is the secretary of the League of Nations Association. The statement continues a series of articles on the publication programs of organizations active in educational work.

of Nations Association in 1925 took up the challenge and organized its own educational committee which has been in continuous operation since that time. Its field of work has been conceived to be adult as well as youth education, but here we shall concern ourselves with youth education alone. Three important principles have guided the work of the Association's educational committee from the beginning. First, it is obvious that any youth education to be worth the name must be based upon facts alone, that no false claims should be made for the League, and that its weaknesses and failures should be honestly presented, together with its basic ideals and its achievements. No attempt has been made thus far to set up youth organizations, on the theory that youth in the United States was already well organized, and that results could best be obtained with the resources available by work through existing organizations. Again, in the preparation of material and the development of projects, the organizations which it is hoped to serve are invariably consulted as to their needs, and the advice of experts is sought as to the way in which these needs may best be met.

FOR example, when the committee first began its work in 1925, important authorities in the New York City educational system were consulted as to the form of League material which would be most useful in the New York City schools. When the committee was asked for a simple pamphlet for classroom use, which would embody the facts of the League, the World Court, and

the International Labor Organization, the head of the history department in a New York City high school was invited to prepare the first draft. The little handbook, *Essential Facts*<sup>1</sup> in regard to the League of Nations, the World Court, and the International Labor Organization, was the result. This pamphlet, described by one reviewer as "a competent guide through a morass of propaganda," has been revised almost annually, and some 150,000 copies have been used. Its tenth edition is now in preparation.

The following year, 1926, advice was sought again as to a project which might serve to popularize the study of the League of Nations in high schools throughout the country. The result was the annual high-school contest on the League of Nations, just concluded for the eleventh year. A well-developed technique for the conduct of this contest has been worked out, and the student preparing the best paper in a prescribed examination on the League of Nations is each year awarded a trip to Europe, featuring a visit to Geneva and the opportunity to study the League of Nations at first hand. Special contest textbooks have been prepared each year, the current edition being *A Brief History of the League of Nations* published in December, 1936. Much promotion work has been done through the association's branches and other co-operating organizations, and a variety of smaller awards are offered, as well as the much sought-after European trip. The main consideration, however, in the minds of the committee is always the thousands of high-school students all over the country who each year make an intensive study of the League in connection with this contest. Eleven hundred and fifty-six high schools participated in 1937, and the committee's records indicate that over one hundred thousand young people representing every state in the union have made the

necessary study of the League since the contest was first organized. Comments of teachers show that one result of the contest has been that study of the League is increasingly becoming part of the regular school curriculum. It is felt that results have been particularly important in smaller schools in remote parts of the country, where it might be expected that international affairs would receive less attention. In these communities the students who have prepared for the contest are often, the teachers report, the best informed people in this field.

THE principal project that the committee has promoted among college and university students is that of the model League assembly. The first student conference of this type was held at Syracuse University in 1927, and the idea swiftly became popular in many parts of the country. Here again, a well-established technique has been evolved. In the intercollegiate model assemblies which have become an annual feature of student life in the New England and Middle Atlantic states, Ohio and Michigan, students from twenty or thirty colleges come together in a two-day conference. Countries have been assigned months in advance, and topics to be discussed decided upon. Within the framework of League procedure, the student delegates debate the current problems confronting the League from the viewpoint of their adopted countries, continue their discussion in committee sessions, and adopt their conclusions at closing plenary meetings just as is done at Geneva. Outgrowths of this idea are the model World Court sessions, labor conferences, Council sessions, and disarmament conferences which have been such a feature of student life in the past few years. Men's and women's organizations, too, have in many cases adopted the same technique. For secondary schools a simpler type of model League assembly has been developed, in which students make use of extracts from the speeches actually delivered at Geneva.

<sup>1</sup> All publications mentioned in this article are available at The League of Nations Association, 8 West 40th Street, New York, N. Y.



An extremely impressive and dramatic program of this type can be presented within an hour's time. These high-school gatherings have frequently been interscholastic in character. *An Outline for Model League Assemblies* has been prepared by the educational staff of the League of Nations Association, which gives instructions for organizing either type of assembly. The verbatim records containing the actual Geneva speeches, with suggestions for extracts to be used, can be obtained from the association's office. Placards to mark the places of the member delegations and flags of the member states are available for purposes of decoration, and the staff of the association is ready to aid in any way in the organization of such student conferences. It is not impossible that delegates to future League assemblies will have gained their first experience of both the difficulties and the satisfactions of international coöperation in these miniature assemblies.

**P**UBLICATIONS useful to schools either prepared directly by the educational staff, or published under the auspices of the educational committee of the association, include various pieces of program and dramatic material, as well as pamphlets designed for debaters and discussion groups. Mention should be made also of the association's monthly newspaper, the *Chronicle of World Affairs*, for which a special student rate is offered for a nine-month subscription. The *Chronicle* is particularly useful for current-events work in more remote communities which do not have access to the metropolitan newspapers with their special foreign correspondents. Many publications also in the association's general list are frequently found helpful by both students and teachers. Simple statements on the League of Nations in question and answer form, pamphlets dealing with matters of current interest, such as neutrality, disarmament, and the economic basis for peace, find ready use in schools. Complete lists of the publications are available upon request.

Other important factors beside the actual classroom instruction in this field and special devices by which it may be promoted are the attitudes of the teachers themselves, and also the provision which the state syllabus makes for the teaching of international relations in secondary schools. From time to time the educational committee has made various investigations in these two fields, and beginnings have been made on work with teacher-training institutions, which it is hoped may be renewed this coming season. For several years a study of the social-science syllabi of the several states has been under way, and this, it is expected, will be completed within the next few months. The purpose of this study is to discover just what state syllabi provide as to the teaching of international relations in general, and the League of Nations and its sister organizations in particular. Space here does not permit any detailed discussion of the facts discovered thus far. Suffice it to say that practically all the newer syllabi give a gratifying amount of attention to international relations and world organization. Certain states offer specific courses in international relations, and practically all states recognize the teaching of international good will and the inclusion of the ideals of peace as major objectives. There is room for much improvement in the courses in civics, which too often discuss only local, state, and national government with no recognition of the attempts already made at world organization. In the schools in the United States, as well as in other countries all over the world, are now the young people who must build a future. Even if the worst should happen and the present peace machinery should pass through the ordeal of war, still, after that war is over, we should have to begin again and build on the experience of the past seventeen years. For this reason it is particularly important for our young people, who would face that hard task, to know the history of the early experiments in international co-operation and to be trained in its ideals.

# Social Studies in the Intermediate Grades

DANIEL C. KNOWLTON

"CHAOS and confusion" is the disconcerting phrase used in *The History Inquiry* (1924) to describe the situation in history teaching; and W. G. Kimmel's more recent report of *Instruction in the Social Studies* (1933) presents a not much more cheerful view. While these two reports offer many explanations and point to possible remedies, in my judgment one of the major factors contributing to the present chaos and confusion in our situation and in our thought is the tendency to forget the road down which we have traveled to our present position—a tendency that has played havoc with the social-studies programs and social-studies instruction.

The general direction of this road is indicated in a significant difference to be noted in the very titles of the two reports, one using the term history and the second using the term social studies. Within the brief period between 1924 and 1933, the older programs, usually labeled as history, sometimes as geography or civics, have been replaced first by citizenship courses and then by social-studies programs; but, in spite of the present insistence that programs shall be called social studies, history and

geography still continue to be the main elements in the program and work of teachers. Any study of the milestones suggested by Edgar Dawson in his *Teaching of the Social Studies* (1928) indicates that for good or evil the foundations laid a little more than a generation ago were essentially in the field of history and geography, and to a lesser degree in civics. On the other hand there has come into existence a new relationship of history, geography, and the ill-defined subject civics. This may be traced back to the appearance of civics in the school curriculum in an early effort to introduce the pupil to certain pertinent aspects of his political and social environment; but it derives its main impetus from developments within the fields themselves and seems to point toward a possible science of society through which man may attain some measure of social control and mastery of social environment. Within the last two decades this whole movement has gathered momentum, until today these subjects form a part of a social-studies program designed primarily to acquaint the pupil with his social inheritance.

THEREFORE, in order to do more effective work under present conditions in the intermediate grades each teacher, concerned as he must be with the process of curriculum making, must find an answer to the perplexing question: "What new demands, if any, do the social studies make upon me which were not characteristic of the older programs known as history and geography?" The answer is the more dif-

This article continues the series on social studies in the elementary school. Dr. Knowlton, now of New York University, was head of the history department in the Ethical Culture School, New York City, in 1929.

ficult owing to the fact that the syllabus under which he may be teaching is still known as a history or geography syllabus—and it may well be questioned in many cases whether there would be any gain in a change of name. Evidently these older designations have lost their former potency or have taken on a new meaning. What is it? Several volumes of the recent Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, especially *A Charter for the Social Sciences* (1932), *The Nature of the Social Sciences* (1934), and "The Frame of Reference" in *Conclusions and Recommendations* (1934) are attempts to answer this question; but they are all more intelligible to the mature student of the theory of education than to the average classroom teacher.

**T**HIS paper, then, will be concerned primarily with an analysis and answer to these questions in terms of the actual work to be done in the classroom. In discussing the problem presented by the social studies in the intermediate grades, our concern should be primarily with the relation of the history and the geography elements in this situation, both of which continue to be the most important consideration in the work of the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades, where definite work in social studies has its beginnings—all existing programs in social studies in the primary grades to the contrary, notwithstanding. Any hope of attaining the ambitious schemes projected for the social studies in the upper grades is dependent on foundations laid down in the intermediate and grammar grades. If the goal in the upper grades is that of revealing to the pupil the possibilities inherent in this group of studies for resolving the present complicated world of man into component elements, with a view to projecting into his thought a kind of "science of society," the foundation for this must be laid in the grades below. What better foundation is there than that supplied by history and geography, concerned as they

are with the concrete aspects of life? At best the pupil in these grades can only make contact with the externals of life as he can see it and lay hold of it. His outlook is limited. He can take in only a small part of the world about him; and he is interested in whatever he can identify with his own experiences.

It is with the idea of simplifying the work of the classroom that programs still center around history or geography, or are identified as "history" programs or "geography" programs, rather than as "social-studies" programs. The use of the term "social science" implies an emphasis on the scientific method that has little place in the work of the intermediate grades. Whether concerned with a small segment of the life of man or conceived on a grander scale, history is concerned with patterns of life. The learner is either attempting to trace the entire pattern or some portion of it. It ought to go without saying that a foundation must be laid for a critical attitude toward human phenomena, but, in a field where materials are so rich and varied, the chief concern of the teacher lies elsewhere.

**F**OR the purpose of the social studies—to make contacts with life and reality—history and geography are peculiarly effective means, especially history, as is emphasized by the volumes of the recent Report of the Commission on the Social Studies. With all this merging of fields of study such as history and geography, which seems to be characteristic of social-studies programs—whatever may be the interpretation placed upon it—the classroom teacher will do his best work by always bearing in mind the fact that it is essentially through the medium of a particular field, such as history or geography, that effective contacts are made with reality.

Such an interpretation may well be placed upon the following quotations from the report of the Commission. "Each of the disciplines inevitably has a center of gravity or furnishes a point of view from



which materials are surveyed and brought into an organization of knowledge . . . many new arrangements of materials may be effected, but the stubborn and irreducible elements of the special disciplines would remain imbedded in it" (*Charter for the Social Studies*, p. 21). And again: "The various social studies are concerned with aspects of the same subject. Those aspects are facets or expressions of the same thing—human life as lived on this earth" (*Nature of the Social Sciences*, p. 4). The task of these intermediate grades, shared in part by the grammar grades, is primarily that of revealing life through the particular facet supplied by the disciplines of history and geography. The teaching problem is that of providing the pupil with a satisfactory background for an understanding of contemporary life. It is a step—but an important one withal—in this direction. "Out of history as actuality," says Charles A. Beard, "have emerged the problems, opportunities, contingencies, and conditioning realities in which individuals, communities, nations, and international conferences must work today. Every contemporary problem, so-called, is a product of history as actuality, has wide-ramifying roots in other problems, and can only be illuminated by reference to historical origins as conditioning forces" (*Nature of the Social Sciences*, p. 68). May we comment at this point that such an appreciation of the contribution of history is not to be attained by burying it in a composite or conglomerate of contacts likely to be intelligible, if at all, only to the advanced student.

It is scarcely to be conceived that the eight- to ten-year-old will be able to understand contemporary life as it is revealed on the mature level found, for instance, in the two volumes of *Recent Social Trends in the United States* (by the President's Research Committee on Social Trends, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1933); but it is not too early to impress him with a consciousness of life's reality. History is the

open sesame to this concept, for it is the total experience of the race. Its data, which fall into the three categories of physical human beings in a physical environment, of their words and actions, and of their thoughts, feelings, and resolutions, supply the building material out of which the contemporary scene begins to take shape and to become meaningful and significant. Although concerned with the phenomena of the past the pupil should never be allowed to divorce this phenomena from life in the present. It is only through the actualities of the present that he experiences the actualities of the past, and, conversely, it is through this experiencing of life in the past that life today takes on a new and more meaningful aspect.

Without attempting to be too specific as to the program followed, although it seems only logical that it should emphasize the pupil's heritage as an American and indicate something of the cultural debt owed to the ancient Orient, Greece, Rome, and Europe, I think that whatever history is presented should be conceived as a series of portrayals of human situations from the book of past human experiences which have meaning and significance for the boy or girl of today.

SET over against these and complementary to them is another series of pictures of man in his environmental setting. These are the contribution of geography. The pupil has marshalled all the data involved, much as the competent traveler forms his own mental pictures of what he sees and experiences. Each portion of mankind reviewed in this way presents certain phases differentiating them one from the other—conditions suggested by their very placement on the earth, that is their location and the geographical influences operating there. The stage setting is always of the present. The explanation of any differences to be noted in a series of such portrayals is sought in the surroundings and not in the passing of the years. The teacher

is at all times setting off the well-defined outlines of the life of the past against the life of the present. Such an environmental pattern as a Chinese river valley, with the teeming life along its banks, is set off against an environmental scene of some five thousand years ago, when another great river valley, the Nile, served to fix the limits of another civilization.

The geography facet in these grades is that now designated as human or cultural geography. Its concern is with the influence that climate, soil, region, and other factors associated with physical environment exercise upon man's life activities. There are but two principles operating, activity and relationship. Differences in people due to differences in their surroundings constitute the real basis for human geography. To appreciate these the pupil must be an intelligent observer. As he observes, he will learn to group his data. Location is important as it discloses the nature of man's environment and influences the character of his activities. It is in this connection that the map becomes of vital importance. The emphasis upon regional geography is the effort to realize the extent to which a specific environmental setting reveals the operation of natural physical forces. Man's relations to land forms, bodies of water, soil, climate, vegetation, and minerals, and finally man's relations to man over the earth's surface are the foci of the geographer's interests.

The environmental setting, then, supplies the bridge between the two closely related fields of history and geography. Whereas from the point of view of the geographer environment is the dominant factor, time is the dominant factor to the historian. Time implies change, a series of changes, and so continuity and development. The student of history is conscious early of the importance of the place element, but it is a man-made environment as contrasted with one nature has provided. With him it is not merely the locale, the hills, the mountains, the valley, but also the home with its furnishings, with its occu-

pants, with its manifestations of human labor and human planning. Yet as far as the house has or has not been adapted to the rigors of a New England winter, to a rocky but well-timbered soil, it is the concern of the geographer, who also follows the New Englander as he builds his fragile boat and fishes for a living off the Grand Banks. The very clothing worn by the occupants of the house, the confinement imposed upon them by the rigors of climate, point again and again to the influence of environment and the adaptation of the life of that section to the conditions it imposes. Yet the moment the factor of time enters, it differentiates the treatment of this phase of life and modifies the emphasis. It is not essentially a geographical setting into which the student of history has penetrated but into a Puritan New England, saturated with the life and activities of another age. The emphasis is upon man in his contact with his fellow man in an epoch, a period, a time when things were different from what they are today. The natural environment of the Puritan is a key to environment today.

All this may best be realized through pictures of environmental scenes, both past and present, the past introducing the idea of change and the present the idea of man's response to natural environment, each complementing the other and presenting the life of today in an ever new and meaningful aspect. This element of environment, in a measure common to both past and present and yet embodying an essentially different emphasis, provides an integrating factor to make a unified program.

PERHAPS we can best illustrate the application of some of these principles by describing in admittedly sketchy fashion the actual program set up for the Ethical Culture Schools, of New York City, in which I was some years ago a member of the staff and later acted in an advisory capacity.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> During the intervening years details of the program have been modified although the fundamental point of view here described still pervades the work.

In the fourth grade the child is taken to the ancient world for his first real view of a cross-section of a life and culture intimately related to his own. The two great river valleys, the Nile and the Tigris-Euphrates, and the Mediterranean basin provide the necessary stage setting. The comparatively narrow limits of Egypt or of Greece provide the major portion of the materials of instruction. The teacher is encouraged to limit the treatment rigidly in order that the pupil may be brought into actual contact with the cultures, rather than be dragged through them. Classes will differ as to interests and amount of ground covered. The history element tends to predominate because it presents a more coherent and a more unifying factor in fixing the work of the classroom. Geography enters as the element to fix the scene and supply necessary data for bridging the intervening spatial considerations that separate them and us. That great world outside his immediate vision is already somewhat familiar as man's storehouse of resources and the habitat of strange people. Now he becomes more conscious of it and makes the acquaintance of the river as it provides early civilized man with a home no less than the man of today. He becomes aware of the presence of islands, promontories, bays, deserts, as they serve as obstacles or as stepping stones to man and his various activities.

With the fifth grade the pupil shifts to the medieval scene. The pupil becomes familiar with a certain pattern of society common to this stage of man's development—or shall we say that he is brought face to face with a series of varying patterns. Taking the castle, the village or manor, the monastery, the cathedral, and the town as so many nuclei, a colorful picture is presented of this medieval world. The link with geography is largely through the trading

activities of the time as they center in the growing towns. These city centers present interesting and striking contrasts with those same cities today as they radiate the pulsing industrial and commercial life of which they have become the main foci. The child becomes aware of a gradual concentration of people in certain parts of Germany, France, and England; he is made aware of the contrasts between this present-day world of factory and ocean liner and the world of guild merchant and master craftsman.

With the sixth grade the pupil makes contacts with the life and activities roughly of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Those phases of man's interests and activities are emphasized which prompted him to leave the narrow confines of the Mediterranean world and launch out on the great ocean. It is an integral part of the movement which resulted in the advance of science and the promotion of art. Its latest phases are represented by the achievements of a Sven Hedin, an Amundsen, a Roy Chapman Andrews, and a Byrd. The opening up of new lands and the extension of man's knowledge of his environment is its most significant aspect.

AT the end I want to make clear my belief that it is not any particular application of method that is of greatest importance. The fundamental consideration is the place of history and geography in the intermediate grades, since those disciplines are peculiarly adapted to the purposes of the social studies in making contact with life and reality in order that pupils may attain some measure of social control and mastery of their social environment. Children need a long intensive exposure to actuality itself, if they are ultimately to appropriate that actuality as the basis for a philosophy of living.



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# Let's Move Forward

EVELYN PLUMMER BRAUN

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“**W**HAT happens to youngsters between the age of twelve or thirteen and the age of eighteen? At twelve or thirteen they are eager for information, they are curious, in an immature way to be sure, about what is happening today and about how it came to happen. They are anxious to talk about it and learn about it. At eighteen, talking about and learning about it has become one more chore that must be done. Why is it?” I asked this question of a teacher well known in the secondary-school world. And he answered me, “I don’t know; but this I do know—that most teachers of history, training children for College Boards, do something pretty dreadful to their young minds. I hope the Commission on History can find the answer. Yet if you do you may not get thanked for it.” That man said this to me more than two years ago. He spoke more truly than he knew.

The Commission on History was created by action of the College Entrance Examination Board in the spring of 1934 to do what from the very start it knew to be a job that would win for it many cries of disap-

This appraisal of the Final Report and Recommendations of the Commission on History of the College Entrance Examination Board, published last November, and of some of the objections and criticisms which have been made of it, comes from the secretary of the Commission.

proval and consternation. It was asked to consider the whole problem of history in the secondary schools and to recommend a comprehensive examination in history. In view of the present set-up, that was a mandate to advocate desirable and needful reform of the present system; and reform means change, and change means work for someone. And so the Commission faced the problem knowing that, if it did its job honestly and according to its best ideals, it would win for itself, from those who did not like its recommendations or did not want change, charges of being inconsiderate of the secondary-school teacher, of being doctrinaire, academic. That the Commission was not too gloomy in foretelling its future is being proved by some of the more vocal among the secondary-school teachers, who seem to feel that, if the Commission ever took into consideration either the problem of the secondary-school teacher or the mental capacity of the child who will take the courses and the examination, such consideration is well disguised in the Final Report and Recommendations which the Commission has produced.

Why do teachers feel this way? The very fact of the Commission's existence implies that change was, by some educators at least, deemed necessary and desirable; and change means, at least during the period of readjustment, added work for those whose work is affected by the change. What is it which stands in the way of the secondary-school teacher, which prevents him from approaching objectively and sympathetically a method of approach to history different

from the established method? We must be realistic in our thinking. We must recognize that there is a strong vested interest in the status quo; that public school teachers must take account of boards of education, state or local, the greater part of whose membership is not made up of educators; and that private school teachers are too often conditioned in their thinking by what well-to-do parents regard as a desirable social pattern. The time has not yet come, though we hope it is not far off, when the teacher of vision and capacity can influence school authorities even as greatly as he is influenced by them.

There were among the members of the Commission on History teachers of history in both school and college, administrators of both school and college, heads of both school and college. If the Commission was to be other than a group so large as to be entirely impracticable, it could not have many representatives of each category. While the college members and the school administrators felt that they could undertake the task of making the report and recommendations, and while the college teacher is, of course, uniquely qualified to judge of the adequacy of students' preparation, the members of the Commission wanted the active co-operation of more school teachers than those few who were actually of the Commission. Letters were sent out to school teachers asking for their ideas, wishes, and ideals, and many, many personal interviews were held. I have talked with literally scores of history teachers, mostly in private schools in the East, and other members of the Commission have done likewise. The results of personal interviews were carefully noted and were reported at meetings of the Commission before any actions were taken. Subcommittees were set up in fields of history, and the membership of each of the subcommittees was predominantly from the secondary schools; and the work of the subcommittees formed the basis for the work of the Commission and for its Final Report.

So much for preliminaries. Shall we examine some of the complaints and some of the misunderstandings? I am assuming that those of you who have read thus far and intend to read farther are interested in trying to understand the Report and do not wish to judge it without first understanding it.

#### UNDERLYING PRINCIPLES

**F**IRST of all, the Commission has been charged with wishful thinking. That seems to be in the minds of many a most utterly damning charge; but it seems to me, and I have done a fair share of observing and inquiring, that one of the sorry lacks in the school world is just wishful thinking. If more thinking were wishful, and more wishing were thoughtful, we might not, today, be faced with this situation in which a report calling for clear and eager thinking on the part of teachers calls forth an epithet, which, while it should if taken literally imply praise, is used as an expression of contempt.

The Commission on History has proposed a method of approach that is relatively new, untried. Is that sufficient reason for assuming that the method of approach is bad, or that it is impossible of application? Have teachers in the secondary schools really come to the point where they are afraid to try something new, where they mistrust an idea simply because it is new? If the method of approach seems to be new it is only the approach, not the subject approached, that is new. All the material, all the facts, all the knowledge the student should acquire, on which his thinking will be founded, is essentially the same as it has always been. The method of approach advocated by the Commission on History is simple—pretty easy to understand, if only we'd try, with a really sympathetic attempt, to understand it. It does not call for any exceptional mental capacity to understand it, for it is based on the problems that face man in society and his ways of dealing with those problems. It is not entirely a subject-matter approach,

but it seeks to develop kinds of understandings, ways of approaching historical material, ability to recognize biases, and sympathetic understandings of other peoples and other cultures different from but also related to the student's own experience.

The Commission on History was asked to recommend a comprehensive examination. Comprehensive examinations have been set in other subjects. Once (1916-23) a so-called "comprehensive" examination was set in history. Actually this was nothing more or less than the old single unit examination with a couple of extra questions tacked on at the end. I know of no one who feels that it is worth repeating. One reason, it has been said, why it is easier to set a comprehensive examination in other subjects than in history is because history is not a cumulative subject. I can't see why—members of the History Commission can't see why. It seems to us that the reason why history is not a cumulative subject is that we have been teaching unrelated facts, that we have left out the cumulative element which is the really important element, relationships.

Mankind, we believe, has throughout time been doing the same sort of things he is doing today, only his ways of doing them differ as he accumulates more experience and more knowledge. Man has always been interested in getting a living, food, shelter, what he thinks he needs from the world. He has been interested in the perpetuation of his species, and in providing for the sick and infirm and needy. He has been interested in transmitting and carrying on what he has learned—his culture if you will; and he has been interested in the development of the individual life, in the influence of individuals on society, of society on individuals. In order to take care of these interests, man has formed groups, groups that range all the way from the family to the state, and man has established standards, standards of right and wrong, of good and bad. He has devised ways and means to impose and protect those standards.

Those are the things that man today is doing, those are the things that man has always been doing; and all of man's social activities, religious, economic, military, what you will, are in answer to one or more of those fundamental needs.

Given the basic fact that man throughout the ages has been driven on by these needs, can't we go a step farther and say that the story of man in society is the story of man facing these social problems and trying to deal with them? That is what the Commission on History has said in recommending its method of approach, and the Commission on History has simply said, "Let us approach all the fields of history the same way—let us seek our facts all through the story of man's development with reference to the same guiding principle." That does not mean that the Commission is advocating adding lists of facts to those that already must be learned, nor does it mean that it is advocating scrapping factual knowledge. Obviously a child's mind is not a dictionary or an encyclopedia, and the teacher must choose what materials and what information is best suited to the child. The Commission on History is, in effect, suggesting to the teacher of history a basis for making this choice. It is suggesting that the principle guiding the selection of facts should be the same throughout the secondary-school years, and that the facts should be tied together by relationships to each other and to the student's own experience. The Commission has been accused of really advocating the teaching of sociology. The Commission is advocating that, throughout the secondary-school years, the study of history and the other social sciences should be a cumulative effort to achieve an understanding of man's social experience. Wars, kings, dynasties, institutions all fit into the social pattern, and they have an added reality when they are shown in their relationship to a social pattern that the student knows and understands.

We have a God-given opportunity today in the fact that youngsters are interested



in that which affects them and their lives and the lives of their families or friends. We are either blind or lazy, if we do not seize our opportunity and use it. Youngsters see a family functioning. They see rules made and imposed, imposed for the good of the group by parents or by the police. They are keenly aware of all the many activities which touch them. They read in the newspapers the story of floods and their results in devastation, and they look, with apprehension or with a confident sense of security, at rivers near their own homes. They read of wars in other lands, and they know that, if their own country should be at war, they or their fathers may be called on to fight that war; they read, if only the headlines, the daily paper, and wonder how they themselves might be affected by those things of which they read. They may not be interested in the facts of which they read, but possible relationships between those facts and their own daily lives do interest them, very much. Facts in themselves, unrelated to our own experience, lack vitality. They may be very interesting. So is much fiction. It may be good mental discipline to learn them. It is probably good mental discipline to learn lists of telephone numbers. We have in history the story of live men and women working out their salvation in their world even as do men and women today, and the story of events that have taken place and how men and women have affected those events and have been affected by them. Why don't we use the relationship that is there for us to point out?

The charge has been made that all this calls for too much maturity on the part of the student. That, it seems to me, is wishful thinking (I use the term in its less desirable but commonly accepted sense). The method of approach does call for rethinking on the part of the teacher of the whole field of history, but I don't think that it calls for too much maturity on the part of the student. If it does, quite frankly, I think that it is the fault of the teacher, not the fault of

the method of approach. The child's own experience should be the maturity point. The Commission is advocating making available to young people an understanding of human experience at the level of their own experience and their own understanding. That is the only level at which it can be real to them. If we expect a child to understand all the complications of any given society, or, if we expect a child to grapple in his mind with abstractions, then of course we are calling for too great maturity, and it's stupid of us. But we must explain the pattern at the start. We must explain the basic problems that always, even as today, have influenced man in society, and then proceed to use the facts of the story of man as illustrative of those problems and how he has dealt with them. All facts remain virtually the same; perhaps some unimportant details are dropped and other details which seem more important are substituted, but the facts are not different from what they have always been.

If we teach history this way, there is one very important advantage, one very obvious advantage it seems to me. We not only relate it to the student's own experience, but by constant reference back and forth to fields already studied we keep alive in the student's mind what he has studied. I say this, realizing perfectly the difference in age level of the student when he studies the different fields. Ancient history, of course, will not be dealt with in the same manner and with the same maturity that American history will be dealt with two years later. But it will be approached the same way; and, when the student comes to study European history and American history, he will be dealing with the same basic problems, and it will be natural to him to recall the contribution made by the Egyptians or Greeks or Romans to the solution of these problems.

One teacher of history wrote to me and said that, in dropping the old unit of ancient history, we were ignoring the valuable contributions made by Greece and Rome to

later civilizations. That statement showed more clearly than any words that the writer had not read the Report of the Commission on History with even the slightest attempt to understand it. Why should the Commission on History spend weeks and months trying to analyze man's history in terms of a common pattern suitable to and applicable to the student's own experience, if not because it feels that the relationship of past cultures and past civilizations to the present is most important, and that their contributions must never be lost sight of? Why should the Commission on History recommend giving the students a knowledge of how present institutions have come to be before teaching the present institutions' functioning, if it did not feel that the past has contributed so much to the present? No. Accusations such as that do not show a realistic attitude toward the problem, but they do show a definite desire to preserve the status quo at all costs.

It has been said that the recommendations of the Commission on History call for highgrade teaching. Like the wishful thinking remark, this should be praise, but it isn't meant as praise. Certainly the Report calls for highgrade teaching; and there is nothing in the Report that the good teacher, if he is really interested, can not apply in his classes very happily and very easily. There is in the Report the outline of a method of approach to history that we hope will attract to the profession of teaching history in secondary schools young men and women of vision and ability, the kind that we need—the kind that all too often shies away because the field of secondary-school history does not give them an outlet for their best efforts.

The objection has been raised that the Report calls for textbooks that do not exist. That is not true. The Report specifically states (p. 557) that all the facts are to be found in the good textbooks and that the good teacher has only to help the student discover the relationships of those facts. I have read textbook after textbook in terms of

this proposed method of approach. The facts are there, and the relationship can easily be shown if we use the books. But if instead of using the books we are slaves to books, if teachers think of textbooks in terms of "learning the next ten pages for Monday," then the complaint is well grounded. The good teacher wants her student to get the habit of digging things out of books, to get enjoyment out of that habit; and the facts are in the good textbooks, ready to be dug out.

The final question that presents itself to me, and unfortunately it is the only question that teachers seem not to ask, is "Why history?" More than one teacher has said to me, "We are afraid to ask ourselves why we teach history. I am afraid to ask myself why I teach history, what my objectives are in teaching history. My objectives must be to pass my students through the College Board exams." Again I say we must be realists. We live in a world—we are of that world. The one study in the secondary schools, public and private schools alike, which tells the story of how mankind has lived in that same world, what he has done, how he has performed his social functions, wherein he has been wise and wherein mistaken in his actions, is history. History is a glorious story, but it is more than that—it is mental discipline, but it is more than that—it is the story of man and why and how he has functioned in the world.

Latin grammar is necessary in order to read Latin literature. The knowledge of arithmetic is necessary to the study of algebra. The Commission on History believes that an understanding of society sufficient to operate effectively in that society is necessary for a real understanding of the present and of the past, the present which is the development and the past through which it has developed.

The Commission further believes that only if history is approached as a means of understanding will it be possible to set for history an examination that is genuinely comprehensive. The Commission grants

that, in order to cover the ground that it recommends as being desirable to cover, it will be necessary to touch lightly some of the factual material that has been stressed heretofore, but the Commission does not grant that it will be necessary to be superficial. Facets must be selected carefully according to a consistent pattern which shall govern their selection. The consistency of that pattern throughout the secondary-school course in history will make it possible to keep certain important facts alive from year to year. The Commission on History believes that that is more than sufficiently valuable to atone for the necessity of omitting some of the material at the secondary-school level.

Above all things, in school we are trying to teach boys and girls to live in a world. Whether that world will immediately mean college or not is a secondary matter. It is because of what the Commission on History believes that history can and should contribute to the training of young people that it advocates, as its method of approach to the study of history, social problems and ways of dealing with them.

#### PRACTICAL APPLICATION

IN various forms the complaint has been made that the Commission on History is advocating a complete change from the old established ways, is advocating that that change take place immediately; and that teachers, therefore, will not have time to adapt themselves and their courses to a different order. That complaint, like the textbook complaint, makes me believe that those who make it have not read the Report with the careful attention it deserves.

In the first place, this Report is, as is stated clearly in its title, a Report to the College Entrance Examination Board. It is a statement of ideals, of desirable objectives. At various points, it specifically recognizes that the period of transition will present difficulties. At no time does it advocate change so rapid as to be impracticable and well-nigh impossible as some

of its critics would have us believe.

On page 552 the Report says that "The Commission recognizes, however, the necessity for facilitating the transition from the existing state of things to the proposed state of things, and accordingly recommends that a single unit examination in American history be retained for five years. All other single unit examinations should be abandoned as soon as is practicable." It is hard to find in that sentence the suggestion that the old ways be scrapped with no thought of practical difficulties and that the teacher be set adrift on a sea for which he has no charts with no compass.

On the same page, 552, the Report again calls attention to the difficult problems that may arise in the transition period and definitely states "that examinations during the period of adjustment should be so framed as to make the transition as easy as possible." Is that the statement of a group of men and women who have no thought of practical difficulties? In its final paragraph the Report again deals with the practical problem of transition.

The Commission on History has from the very start borne in mind the secondary-school teacher and the fact that his is the task of teaching the history. The Commission on History, when it submitted its Report, expected that those who read the Report would do so with interest, with a desire to understand it. The Report of the Commission on History advocates change, but it does not advocate throwing to the winds all the facts of history and all of the mental discipline and fine mental habits that should result from the study of history. It advocates change but it does not advocate that such change be so rapid as to be impossibly difficult for the teacher or pupil. The Commission recognizes that any change from the status quo means trouble, and it advocates such change in answer to a very definite and very sound plea from many thoughtful teachers who felt that there was so much wrong in the teaching of the social studies in the secondary schools that a per-



sistence in the existing system or rather in the existing chaos was doing serious damage to the social education of young Americans. The Commission on History sent out a questionnaire to teachers of history in secondary schools in an endeavor to find out what they were doing and what they would like to do.

I have mentioned the many personal interviews that we held. They disclosed the fact that some schools, mostly private schools, follow pretty closely the recommendations of the Committee of Seven; ancient, medieval, and modern history, English history, American history; but a great many schools give American and American and American history with perhaps some ancient and some English history thrown in. In the public schools a tremendous emphasis is placed on the so-called other social studies with a good deal less emphasis on the historical backgrounds. There seemed to be no common pattern. There seemed to be only two dominating reasons for the courses that were given. In the case of the private prep schools there seemed to be a rather definite aversion to change—the rather complacent attitude of “our youngsters always pass their College Boards”; and in the case of the public schools there was the very definite influence of the tax payer, the boards of education, the pressure groups. The Commission on History, at least the majority of the members, feel very strongly that, before the youngster can understand the present economic and political machine functioning, he must have some notion of how the machine developed and why it developed. History and the other social studies are interrelated, have reference to the same sorts of material. History should, in the opinion of the Commission, prepare the student for more intelligent consideration of the other social studies.

We speak of important fundamental studies. Is anything really more important

or more fundamental to the education of young Americans than the knowledge of the development of man in society? Of course mathematics and the languages are firmly entrenched. Mathematics and the languages do their own jobs, they have been regarded as tools of understanding. If history would do its own job, the job of giving the means of understanding through teaching how man has developed, why he has developed, what he has done, where he has made mistakes, and where he has achieved gloriously, perhaps then the colleges would be readier to accept more history and to change their entrance requirements so as to make it possible for more history to be offered even at the sacrifice, sometimes, of some of the required units of languages or mathematics. But, if secondary-school history neglects to train understanding in its preoccupation with memorizing and accumulating, then it ignores the importance of the function which history is peculiarly equipped to perform in the training of the young mind. Is it not then trying to impose a kind of mental discipline that probably can better be got through mathematics or languages? It is not performing its own function, and it is attempting to perform a function that other disciplines, by their very nature, are better qualified to perform.

We can move forward, or we can move back. It takes courage to move forward, courage and faith and a desire to make education a real and a vital force in the future men and women of this country. If we refuse this challenge, aren't we deliberately turning our back on growth? We don't stand still—no matter how much we wish to we can't stand still. Don't let us be fooled by the plausible sounding arguments of those who realize that the easiest way to kill an ideal and an objective which involves change is to say “It is utterly impracticable. It cannot be done. We know, for we have experience.”

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# Teaching American Biography

KATHARINE ELIZABETH CRANE

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**B**IOGRAPHY, constituting as it does the record of human nature against the background of events, now shaping and now being shaped by them, is a proper study for a generation peculiarly bereft of any widely trusted guides of conduct and learning. With whatever emotions we have watched the rapid shift in standards of all kinds during the past two decades, the result has inevitably left us with a profound distrust of standards in education as well as in other things. This distrust is apparent in the quickening of criticism, interest, and development in education. We speak more or less glibly of objectives, tests for the measurement of progress, and standards of achievement. Yet who among us is really so wise that he can know, in any specific way, what trainings and what attitudes will best serve the children of today in the life of tomorrow? In our own lifetimes we have watched revolutionary changes in organized religion, government, manners, morals, and the very fabric of common life. The sights, sounds, smells of everyday experience are wholly alien to those of our own youth. The details we learned as facts have ceased to be facts, and the accepted theories of our youth are wholly outmoded. The things that were true yesterday are false today; but the human nature of today is, in spite of singular external changes, the human nature of yesterday. One of the few conditions of life which we can, with any clearness, foresee in the coming years is that it will be lived, with laughter and with tears, by men and women controlled, on the whole, by those fundamental human char-

acteristics which have persisted throughout recorded time. Whatever changes may occur in human endowment and human development come so slowly as to be imperceptible from generation to generation. In a world of shifting values and disappearing achievement, then, it seems desirable to bend some additional effort to teaching the history of the world's joy and the world's pain in terms of human nature—in terms of biography.

From a pedagogical point of view the case for teaching biography has been argued far better than I can do it here. I suppose it is fair to say that the movement goes back as far as Herbart, the first teacher in our own intellectual tradition to emphasize the fact that, of all the disciplines, history and literature were best adapted to what he considered the essential purposes of education—that is the cultivation of the many-sided interest that leads to virtue. Moreover, he pointed out the desirability of the study of history and literature as being capable of elevating the child without depressing the adult, and in that spirit I venture to discuss some recent American biographical writings.

**M**ETHODICAL lists of appropriate biographical reading have already been compiled. Of these I shall mention two. One of the publications of the National Council for the Social Studies (no. 5, 1930) is a "Bibliography of American Biography Selected and Annotated for Secondary Schools" by Florence H. and Howard E. Wilson, which offers about five hundred

titles arranged by chronological periods and adds a valuable discussion of the use and purpose of biography in teaching. Another useful list is the revised and enlarged edition (New York: Wilson, 1937) of *Biography in Collections, Suitable for Junior and Senior High Schools* by Hannah Logasa, which lists collections of short biographies in a wide variety of fields and provides a finding index by person and by field of interest. Its brief characterizations indicate the general tone of the book itself, rather than of the careers of the subjects as for instance of Paul de Kruif's *Microbe Hunters* "science information in interesting form," of Sidney Lee's *Great Englishmen of the Sixteenth Century* "good background material for the Elizabethan period. Chapter bibliographies. Index. For the mature pupil," and of Lytton Strachey's *Eminent Victorians* "one of the first debunking biographies, and the best of its kind. For the mature pupil."

#### DICTIONARY OF AMERICAN BIOGRAPHY

OUR generation is committed to biography as history and as an art form. That fact is attested by the constant flow of new biographies from the presses and by such manifestations as the widespread popular interest in the recently finished twenty volumes of the *Dictionary of American Biography* (New York: Scribner, 1928-1936), an enterprise made possible through the generosity of the late Adolph S. Ochs, sponsored by the American Council of Learned Societies, and completed with the co-operation of a great number of scholars in various fields of interest. It contains brief biographies of more than 13,000 men and women who contributed to American life in its manifold aspects and was written by more than 2,000 American and foreign contributors. Allan Nevins said of it in the *Saturday Review of Literature* for January 16, 1937, that it "may indeed be called the greatest of all American works of co-operative scholarship . . . a monument in which the nation might well take more

pride than in Boulder Dam or the Golden Gate Bridge." In criticism he found that "the Dictionary might well have been somewhat fuller" in order that the reader might be entirely rather than "almost certain of finding here every dead person who has really counted for much in American life." He also thought that the *DAB* was uneven in the quality of its sketches, and that, much more importantly, there were "evidences of a considerable variation between groups of articles," those on authors, religious leaders, soldiers, artists, and scientists "for the most part excellent" but those on industrialists, financiers, city-builders, machine politicians, immigrant leaders, and technicians "weakest." Yet he was kind enough to add that "in these areas it can only be said that the editors of the Dictionary have done as well as they could, and better than most critics would have expected."

In summary he wrote: "In these twenty volumes, waiting to be organized and synthesized, . . . is more of our history than we previously dreamed that we had. Here is the richest exhibit yet made of the American character in action—a panorama ready for the novelist, the poet, the scenario writer, and the journalist to levy upon it. Here are materials which, as they gradually seep into the literary consciousness of America, and into its social consciousness, will change our attitude toward our national past; deepen our respect for our ancestors and ourselves; and by giving us a larger sense of the grandeur of the drama that has just begun on this great North American stage, alter for the better our demands from the present, and our hopes and expectations of the future."

#### BIOGRAPHY IN TEACHING

WHAT I want to do here, then, is not to argue the question of the suitability of biography or to supply exhaustive bibliographies. I want instead to present what may seem to be a haphazard but what I hope will be a suggestive discussion of the



possibilities in using some of the recently written biographies to create the same kind of personal interest and critical judgment concerning the lives of historical figures that many pupils already have concerning the lives of contemporary figures in baseball, the movies, and even local and national politics. What the present mistress of the White House provides for her table, how it is cooked, and who is invited to meals is not essentially different in interest from what those in the White House had to eat and drink in the Hayes administration, for instance. Yet certainly many school pupils manifest a surprising interest in the one and regard an interest in the temperance convictions of Mrs Hayes as wholly antiquarian. Now I am not trying to persuade you that I consider the one or the other as important to a basic understanding of American history, political or social; but I am trying to point out that the ability to regard both as of the same piece of cloth is invaluable. It belongs to a sense of reality, which, when pushed to its further reaches, leads pupils to see national and international history as the creation of human beings with entirely human attributes, and in the light of that understanding of the past to envisage their own corporate present and future as dependent on similar human beings with similar attributes.

TO that end the "new biography" with its emphasis on "debunking," on the frailties and mistakes of heroes, is important in spite of the very heavy burden it puts on the teacher to correct errors in historical fact and interpretation and, I think more importantly, to acknowledge the elements of truth and at the same time correct errors in that pervasive cynicism which in the past we have associated with demoralization and decay. There is nothing greater than truth; but a partial truth must sometimes be filled out with a larger truth in order to obtain any valid final impression. It is necessary to help pupils begin to understand the necessity for discounting what writers say

about persons who are famous and dead, just as they learn to discount what their friends say about each other in private. Aside from plain malice and gossip, there often exist various estimates concerning one individual. Living and dead it is the same; and some time in the course of an education that fact must be grasped. The responsibility for teaching this, as well as the responsibility for directing interest in biographical detail toward a wider intellectual and social understanding rather than toward antiquarianism, depends on the mind and character of the teacher—on which, as a matter of fact, most of the rest of the general direction and tone of education depends.

ALSO for the sake of using biography to create a sense of the past as dominated by human beings essentially like ourselves it is necessary to provide a convincing impression of personality, which escapes all definition but can not escape instant recognition. One is aware of it poignantly over and over again in memoirs, published correspondence, and autobiographies. With the turn of a phrase, a sentence of description, or a repeated word the individual long since dead is for the instant re-created in the flesh, walks across the very page, and in another moment is lost again in oblivion. Lamentably, though, such a glimpse of personality is rare in formal biography. Apparently it depends neither on accuracy of fact and description nor on validity of interpretation. Often has each of us turned weary page on weary page of undoubted fact, painstakingly true and carefully documented, but wholly lacking any breath of life. The thrill may be described, but it is not there.

The question even of the validity of interpretation is, unfortunately, equally irrelevant. Perhaps as interesting an example as any of the creation of a conviction of reality while presenting a biased picture is the *Life of Lincoln* by W. H. Herndon and J. W. Weik (edited by Paul M. Angle, New

York: Boni, 1930). Although Herndon wrote out of his experience as Lincoln's law partner and presented a truthful picture from his own point of view, any careful reading of the biography will convince one that Herndon failed to see the whole stature of the man. His picture is certainly out of focus, but of the hundreds of volumes written about Lincoln I think not one of them makes so clear the process of development of a great man out of a frontier boy. Herndon did not explain the mystery of the transmutation. He failed to understand either the process or its completeness in Lincoln's own life. Nevertheless his book presents in easy fashion the changing picture for us to watch. It is Abraham Lincoln.

In direct contrast the ten-volume *Abraham Lincoln: a History* by Lincoln's two wartime secretaries, John G. Nicolay and John Hay (1890 and New York: Century, 1917), can almost be said to include everything and depict nothing. Their acquaintance with the details of his presidential administration was unbounded. Their range of material was unsurpassed. Their appreciation of the importance of Lincoln's place in the world was complete. Yet the figure of their protagonist is never quite flesh and blood, and all the ten volumes are never quite able to re-create either the man who wrote the Gettysburg speech or the strange, patient figure who during the Civil War sat so many hours in the telegraph office of the war department waiting for news from the front.

TWO recent autobiographical records, one a journal and letters and the other a formal autobiography, illustrate this moving sense of actuality. Both authors were professional dealers in words, and both books reflect the advantage of that origin. The two volumes of *The Letters and Journal of Brand Whitlock*, chosen and edited with a biographical introduction by Allan Nevins (New York: Appleton-Century, 1936), present the day-to-day journal of our ambassador to Belgium from the outbreak

of the World War until his departure from Belgium at the end of 1921. They have the same flavor as his earlier *Forty Years of It* (New York: Appleton-Century, 1914) with its record of the struggle for civic reform in Toledo, Ohio; but they also possess the charm of informality and the importance of world events. His descriptions are everywhere arresting, from the day he reported that the Belgians "have drawn up their calm and stately reply to Germany's ultimatum" to the end of the war when he commented on his own lack of emotion on that day of days, "Perhaps it is because I have had too many emotions, and am tired, tired, tired, to the bone, and to the marrow of the bone."

Rudyard Kipling's *Something of Myself* (Garden City: Doubleday Doran, 1937) is notable for his version of his relationships in our own country and for his comments on it and on ourselves. My own interest was caught by his description of settling down in England and adapting himself to the swift rush of development in the details of modern living. He bought a house on a hill too steep for horses to drag a carriage to the top in comfort; but already he was the mystified possessor of a new kind of locomotion called an automobile. In the years that followed the strange new automobile developed power and stability, and the difficult hill flattened out to a scarcely perceptible incline. This whole passage in his life seemed to me an illuminating view of the past and present in everyday life, written by the hand of a master and applicable to the task of re-creating the social history of the generation just gone for school children who have never had a ride with a horse and buggy.

WITHIN the panorama of men and deeds that is American history, I would choose to present well balanced, truthful, and interesting biographies of all the greatest figures with due emphasis therein on the parts played by lesser men. As a matter of fact this is impossible, be-

cause any body of such biography still remains unwritten for a variety of reasons—perhaps to a surprising extent because men have laid too much emphasis on the moral lessons and the moral failures of biography and been too unwilling to give due credit for success to my Lady Luck, too unwilling to tell the story and neglect the glory. The reaction of our own time is natural, but we can expect the results to be very little more satisfactory to the generation that follows us than our inheritance was to us. History is the most ephemeral form of literature, and I suppose biography is the most ephemeral form of history.

To add to the difficulties of biographical presentation, certain men and certain periods have been sadly neglected in recent years. The earliest period of voyage and discovery and of colonial development is poorly represented in biography suitable for youthful readers or for adult teachers of youth. Samuel E. Morison's *Builders of the Bay Colony* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1930) is interesting, accurate, and well-written; but its geographical range is so narrow as to be unsuitable for many school districts. Colwyn Edward Vulliamy's *William Penn* (New York: Scribner, 1934) does not present a new view, although the author has used some new material, and it lacks any radiance of Penn's inner light, an understanding of which I consider necessary to an understanding of Penn's life and career. Whatever may be one's personal spiritual belief and experience, it is an untenable position to deny the possibilities of religious spiritual experience in others. Hendrick W. Van Loon's *Life and Times of Peter Stuyvesant* (New York: Holt, 1928) is a widening experience for any young mind. The numerous biographies of Benjamin Franklin, of which Phillips Russell's popular *Benjamin Franklin, The First Civilized American* (New York: Brentano, 1927) ought not be overlooked, all suffer by comparison with the *Autobiography* which, however, records his life only as far as the year 1757.

#### EARLY PATRIOTS

WITH the beginnings of federal existence present-day biographical interest is more clearly apparent. Among the handful of men who interested themselves in bringing on the Revolutionary War and in creating independence Sam Adams of Boston was probably the most unscrupulous and the most successful of all the agitators, as is made abundantly clear in *Sam Adams: Pioneer of Propaganda* by John C. Miller (Boston: Little Brown, 1936). The book is also notable as an interestingly readable study in propaganda in which John Adams, James Otis, and John Hancock all play vivid, though not wholly decorous, parts. John Adams, the second President, is portrayed at greater length in James Truslow Adams' *The Adams Family* (Boston: Little Brown, 1930), which deals also with his son John Quincy Adams, the sixth President, his grandson Charles Francis Adams, our able minister to Great Britain during the Civil War, his great-grandsons Brooks Adams, Charles Francis Adams, and Henry Adams, all distinguished men in their own right. There are few books which are more thoroughly entertaining and provide larger slices of American biographical history than *The Adams Family*. The family, generation by generation, has played an amazing part in American history. Of course the better way to make their acquaintance is through their own intimate writing but even the two indispensable collections, the ten volumes of the *Works of John Adams* (Boston: Little Brown, 1850-1856) and the seven volumes of the *Writings of John Quincy Adams* (New York: Macmillan, 1913-1917), of themselves make too staggering a total. I recommend to you Allan Nevins' one volume edition of the *Diary of John Quincy Adams* (New York: Longmans, 1929) for a sampling of the Adams mind. Tom Paine's dramatic life and matchless service to our country's independence has been almost forgotten; but Hesketh Pearson in *Tom Paine: Friend of Mankind* (New York: Harper, 1937) has provided a lively, though



partisanly favorable, account of his personal life and character after his emigration to America at the age of thirty-seven, of the *Common Sense* pamphlet which gave important impetus to American independence, of his later career, and of the orthodox hatred aroused by the publication of *The Age of Reason*. There is a good assortment of pertinent quotations.

GEORGE WASHINGTON has remained a subject to baffle the biographer. Shortly after Washington's death Mason Locke Weems first published *The Life and Memorable Actions of George Washington*, which was a fictionalized biography, in its relation to orthodox history a good deal like our ultra-modern fictionalized biography. A great many unkind things have been said about "Parson Weems" and his evil effect on biographical writing; but it ought to be remembered that his introduction of doubtful episodes, such as the hatchet-and-cherry-tree story in the fifth (1806) edition, was wholly suitable to his time. It is only different from present-day introduction of doubtful episodes and stretched psychoanalytical interpretations in that the taste of his generation demanded a highly moralistic tone while ours expects pert scandal and ribald innuendo. His success is indicated by the fact that his book was an undoubted best-seller and ran through more than seventy accredited and varying editions. It is probably true that, for some time to come, each generation will rewrite its history after its own manner, and the best one can do, in the absence of one's own adequate research, is to read the product thoughtfully and take into careful account the internal evidence of bias and method.

Since Weems' day a throng of biographers have done little better in drawing a complete picture of George Washington. Born of something less than comfortable circumstances, in his early youth he identified himself with the speculative land schemes of the Ohio frontier, made his for-

tune, acquired the grand manner of the aristocracy, served his country long and well, and became a tradition in his own lifetime. It remains the perfect type of American achievement, and it is no wonder that a complete record of that one life eludes any writer who attempts to set it all down between the covers of a book. Henry Cabot Lodge tried to do it in two volumes in 1889. His *George Washington* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin) resembles Weems' in the impossible perfection of his hero. In 1933 John C. Fitzpatrick, the editor of Washington's diaries and of the bi-centennial edition of Washington's writings, published *George Washington Himself* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill), the product of enormous research and unlimited resources. Yet the author's canons of historical criticism and interpretation left him with essentially Parson Weems' view of the life and the character. W. E. Woodward's *George Washington, the Image and the Man* (New York: Boni, 1926) was so critical that I am tempted to write that he found little good in the man. Rupert Hughes wrote three volumes (New York: Morrow, 1926-1930) to emphasize Washington's human qualities, and to some extent succeeded. His research was extensive—a member of the staff in the manuscript room of the Library of Congress once told me that Rupert Hughes had done more research there in the Washington papers than any other reader except Worthington C. Ford and John C. Fitzpatrick—but he did not produce a biography that has satisfied either the exactions of scholarship or the requirements of popular interest.

Last year Charles Henry Ambler published *George Washington and the West* (Chapel Hill: Univ. of North Carolina Press), which gives a fresh point of view by turning attention to Washington's westward adventures. It is not a "debunking" biography, but it presents an aspect of Washington that is too seldom observed—an aspect that is illustrated adequately in a single letter that he wrote on June 24,

1767, to a man in debt to him. It is not quite the letter the "father of his country" should have written; but it is a typical letter of a good business man, honest but hard, and it throws a clear flood of light on the man and the situation. It may serve to remind us also that perhaps virtue had to be a little hard to fight a Revolution, create a new country, and make a going concern out of the Constitution of 1789.

OF the group of men around Washington there are many biographies. In no sense do I intend to suggest that my list can be exhaustive. It can only contain those books that at the moment illustrate the point of view I am trying to present. Frank Monaghan's *John Jay* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1935) is a narrative of early politics and diplomacy, based on new material, and is readable, although never quite so readable as it always seems to be going to be. The author was apparently overwhelmed by the richness of his material and of his detail. The book is hard on Jefferson and yet fails to benefit Jay much by that lack of charity. *Aaron Burr: the Proud Pretender* by Holmes Moss Alexander (New York: Harper, 1937) is an interesting book, pro-Hamilton, as are many biographies of that richly endowed but strangely twisted character, Aaron Burr. The material is not new, and the author's theory of the rights and philosophy of a superman is hardly to be commended to young readers. Neither is Frederick Scott Oliver's *Alexander Hamilton: an Essay on American Union* (1906 and New York: Macmillan, 1931) quite adapted to youthful readers. Able, conservative in point of view, well but closely written, it discusses the author's theories of actuating ideas and achievements, but it does not re-create the man. It, too, favors Hamilton in the matter of his relations with Burr and, moreover, deals roughly with Hamilton's other great antagonist, Thomas Jefferson. On the other hand Claude Bowers in his various biographies of this period has gone a long way toward tipping the balance

of bias in favor of Jefferson. His *Jefferson and Hamilton* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1925) might be read in connection with his later book, *Jefferson in Power* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1936), and with James Truslow Adams' *The Living Jefferson* (New York: Scribner, 1936). All of them are absorbingly interesting books; but they all suffer from oversimplification and literary license. Each author regards himself as Jeffersonian, but each presents a quite different view of the bearing of Jefferson's ideas on present politics. The last chapter of *The Living Jefferson* is devoted to what Adams thinks about the present situation in these United States and the federal government at Washington. It belongs entirely to the literature of controversy and has little to do with the rest of the book. It might be a good exercise in critical evaluation to have pupils read that last chapter carefully and then pick out parts of the text in which they think that Adams' own opinion probably colored his reading of events. Another suggested exercise is to find somewhere in Bowers' book a definition, explicit or implicit, of democracy. He writes a great deal about "democracy," but he never does define it, and, moreover, under his hand the word certainly seems to shift meaning from time to time. Helen Nicolay's *Boys' Life of Jefferson* (New York: Appleton-Century, 1934) provides a narrative for younger readers, as do her earlier biographies of Washington, Lincoln, and Hamilton, but I think it fails to make the events and achievements of his life move with what is, after all, their very real drama.

The *Life of John Marshall* in four volumes by Albert J. Beveridge (1916-1919 and Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1929) is the standard biography, and I fear there will not soon be another one. It is also a brilliant history from the strictly conservative point of view. Nevertheless, it is bad business, for Beveridge committed what seems to me the one unforgivable sin in a biographer. He withheld an important fact, because he was unable to make it fit into his consistent

picture of the protagonist. The plain fact is that Marshall with his family was financially interested in the Fairfax lands when the case involving the act for their confiscation was tried before the federal Supreme Court. He himself delivered the Court's opinion on a pertinent case of "obligation of contracts," and, though declining to sit in the case actually involving the Fairfax lands, he seems to have influenced the opinion of the court to disallow the act of confiscation that would have rendered valueless the family holdings of Fairfax lands (see L. C. Bell, "John Marshall: Albert J. Beveridge as a Biographer," *Virginia Law Register*, March, 1927). There are of course a variety of things to be said about all this, as there always are; but Beveridge refused to face the issue, and one's interpretation of that incident must affect the entire reading of Marshall's character.

#### MIDDLE YEARS

**P**RESIDENTS of the United States have by virtue of their office engaged the constant attention of biographers, in spite of the fact that historians are fairly well agreed that in most cases the ablest men have not reached the coveted goal. Charles A. Beard has provided us with a volume that will be useful in school reference libraries, *Presidents in American History* (New York: Messner, 1935). It is adapted to junior high-school pupils and possibly those younger, yet not to be overlooked by high-school pupils and teachers.

Of the many able men plagued by vain desire to live in the White House at Washington Henry Clay is one of the most obvious. Two recent authors have undertaken to deal with parts of his long and distinguished career. In *Henry Clay and the Whig Party* (Chapel Hill: Univ. of North Carolina Press, 1936) George Rawlings Poage has given us a simple and direct, readable but not vivid, narrative of the ten years between 1840 and 1850. The other book is Bernard Mayo's *Henry Clay: Spokesman of the New West* (Boston: Houghton

Mifflin, 1937) devoted to the years of Clay's rise to ascendancy on the Kentucky frontier and to the War of 1812. Based on a critical reading of an enormous amount of material, a good deal of it new, the story is, nevertheless, told with literary dexterity, a description here and an anecdote there. The result is an admirable study of the man and the frontier. Moreover it is an important view of our national history, well calculated to help readers envisage national and international decisions as only a state of rest between the stresses and strains of internal politics. All of us must hope that this is the first of several volumes on this important figure in American history.

Of the men who have attained the coveted presidency Andrew Jackson was one of the most picturesque. Marquis James' *Andrew Jackson* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1933) deals with the years before the presidency. The ground for this book was broken by John Spencer Bassett, whose biography is still important; but, although not so good as James' *The Raven: A Biography of Sam Houston* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1929), his *Andrew Jackson* is dramatic, easy reading for a wide variety of interests and abilities. Holmes Moss Alexander's *The American Talleyrand: the Career and Contemporaries of Martin Van Buren* (New York: Harper, 1935) presents an unsympathetic picture of Jackson's successor and assigns to him a greater portion of responsibility for the development of "practical politics" than, I think, is warranted by the evidence. It is however an excellent popular description of the period and the abuses that came out of it.

**A**MONG the biographies of lesser men I have spoken of James' *The Raven*. Another biography of a Texan who played his part in adding Texas to our birthright is *Mirabeau Buonaparte Lamar* by Herbert P. Gambrell (Dallas, Texas: Southwest Press, 1934). The material is not new, but the story runs swiftly through the years of Lamar's youth in Georgia and those of his



mature career in Texas from 1835 to his death in 1859, years momentous in the history of Texas and of the nation. J. Fred Rippey's *Joel Roberts Poinsett* (Durham: Duke Univ. Press, 1935) spends some time on Poinsett's early years with copious quotations from his diary, which sets the stage for the life of this too little known South Carolinian who played an important part in our earliest relations with South America, was a Unionist leader in the nullification struggle in South Carolina, and performed effective service as secretary of war in Van Buren's cabinet. *Old Fuss and Feathers* by Arthur D. Howden Smith (New York: Greystone Press, 1937) is the biography of Winfield Scott, who became a brigadier general in the War of 1812, as high ranking officer in the army, can be said to have trained most of the officers who fought against each other in the Civil War, and was commander-in-chief of the army when that war broke out. Much of it is pure drama from the Battle of the Chippewa to the victorious entry into Mexico City, told with no yearning sense of war's pity or war's waste. It probably is not good propaganda for peace; but many boys will love it, and it is good enough history!

#### CIVIL WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

RECENT writing on the Civil War has not been on the whole lacking in the sense of the shame and uselessness of war. That is not true of Douglas Freeman's *R. E. Lee* (New York: Scribner, 4 vols. 1934-1935), which never really questions war's absolute necessity so far as the South was concerned. Those four volumes represent a vast amount of research and probably the bringing together of all important pertinent material on the life of this very great hero. It is a permanent work. Yet, in spite of an easy style, it lacks a certain saving grace of humanity, and there is nowhere any hint of realization that, as Dumas Malone, the editor-in-chief of the *Dictionary of American Biography* and himself a Southerner, said of Lee in *Harpers* last April, "the

younger generation may find his piety suffocating." In 1916 Gamaliel Bradford was frankly cynical of war and its products in *Union Portraits* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin). William E. Dodd in *Jefferson Davis* (Philadelphia: Macrae Smith, 1907) was sympathetic but certainly not oblivious to the elements of blame, and his *Lincoln or Lee* (New York: Century, 1928) is pregnant with the pity of it all. In spite of its suggestive style and charm of allusion, *Lincoln or Lee* is too compact to recommend to youthful readers; but with the exception of Herdon's *Lincoln*, which I have already discussed, it more than other books, I think, makes clear the human limitations and the human decisions that lay with the weight of iron on these two leaders, Lincoln and Lee.

Hamilton J. Eckenrode's *James Longstreet* (Chapel Hill: Univ. of North Carolina Press, 1936) presents the case for the South's choice of Longstreet as the scapegoat for the mistakes and tragedies of the Civil War, but his presentation has not been accepted by military or civil historians. So much has been said on each side of this question that we all would be grateful for a book by a competent military man, preferably not a Southerner.

William B. Hesseltine's *Ulysses S. Grant* (New York: Dodd Mead, 1935) is primarily a political biography concerned with the sorry years of growth as a party politician, and Robert R. McCormick's *Ulysses S. Grant* (New York: Appleton-Century, 1934) is devoted to the Civil War. The author believes Grant to have been a great soldier, perhaps the greatest in all history; and the battle scenes are exciting, if you like that kind of thing. I mistrust war as a way of settling disputes, and I lack the sense of logical and mathematical precision that would give me what I realize to be a pure intellectual enjoyment in the intricacies of the moves. However some of the boys—or girls—in your class may disagree with me. I have it to remember that one of my own most stubborn cases of a clever pupil's disinterest was permanently helped

in an idle moment of desultory conversation about changes in armor during the middle ages. My information was entirely inadequate, but it served.

Out of its chronological order I might add that Alex Mathews Arnett in his study of *Claude Kitchin and the Wilson War Policies* (Boston: Little Brown, 1937) has presented convincingly the point of view of the man who in 1917 had the courage to speak and vote against the war resolution.

*General Grant's Last Stand* by Horace Green (New York: Scribner, 1936) is a simple, moving tale of Grant's last months of suffering from the hopeless disease that ranks with the major agonies, and of his struggling, successfully, to finish his memoirs in order that his debts might be paid and his family provided for. Whatever may be one's convictions about his right to fame as a soldier or his responsibility for the shameful spectacle of his two presidential administrations, the courage of his death will remain a high tradition in our national annals.

THE note of criticism grows louder in books dealing with the Reconstruction period and the later period. In 1928 Robert W. Winston, a North Carolinian of undoubtedly distinguished lineage and ability, wrote a book on *Andrew Johnson* (New York: Holt), the Southern poor white who was the only President of the United States to be impeached. The book is a fairly complete rehabilitation of Johnson's reputation and an acute re-examination of the Reconstruction period. This year Winston has in his autobiography, *It's a Far Cry* (New York: Holt), discussed with an amazing frankness his own view of some of the problems of the Civil War, restoration of organized life in the South, and the relations of the two races. The very frankness may make the book unsuitable for use in the schools of some communities, but that frankness ought not make it unsuitable reading for the teachers. As a matter of fact the part of the book that interested me most was con-

cerned neither with the historical past nor with sectional or racial conflict. Until his retirement Winston was a lawyer, a successful lawyer, and in this book he discusses the question of legal and professional ethics and how a lawyer gets on in the world. "The duty of the lawyer is to win his case. . . . Harsh and cruel as it may sound, a lawyer, like a soldier, follows the flag, asks no questions, gives no quarter. Tooth and claw is his rule. Certainly this was my rule. . . . Whereupon, my practice grew, by leaps and bounds. The public seemed to be more eager for a successful lawyer than for a Sunday School teacher!" (pp. 126, 129, 131). If we take this as a just representation of legal ethics and practice—and we must—we have it to consider whether as a people we believe this is the best way to preserve our civil and human rights. In spite of its large measure of success, we hold the medical profession bitterly responsible for certain failures to provide adequate medical protection to our whole people; but, so far, we have shown little popular interest in expecting the legal profession to provide adequate legal protection to our whole people. Yet, when the legal rights of the meanest citizen are infringed, the legal rights of each one of us are menaced. Moreover, whatever may be my personal point of view, I must admit that the maintenance of my legal rights is, from the point of view of society, more important than is the maintenance of my one paltry life.

OTHER studies include Ellis M. Coulter's *William G. Brownlow* (Chapel Hill: Univ. of North Carolina Press, 1937), a well written and careful biography of that Methodist zealot—and man of power—who hated Baptists and Presbyterians with the same hatred that he had for the old South. His years as Reconstruction governor of Tennessee are here recorded with adequate detail and description but not with an illuminating analysis of the implications of his career on the subsequent development of Southern social and political life. In

much the same way Frederick H. Gillett's *George Frisbie Hoar* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1934) fails to analyze some important political controversies and to show clearly the mind and character that in sincere devotion to moral and intellectual issues could identify them always with the Republican party quite unaware, apparently, that the Republican party had undergone radical changes in the evolution from the party of Abraham Lincoln and Joshua Giddings to that of Mark Hanna and William McKinley. *Hamilton Fish* (New York: Dodd Mead, 1936) by Allan Nevins, which won the Pulitzer Prize as did his *Grover Cleveland: a Study in Courage* (New York: Dodd Mead, 1932), is mostly concerned with the eight years of service as secretary of state in Grant's cabinet, based largely on a voluminous, unpublished diary. Nevertheless, the man emerges complete, and, besides being important history, it is a good book, with excellent shrewd appraisals of other men of the period and of the period itself. It will take time to read it; but anyone who likes it will not want to hurry over it. A view of the forces and limitations of Western agrarianism is to be had from reading G. M. Stephenson's *John Lind of Minnesota* (Minneapolis: Univ. of Minnesota Press, 1935). It also deals extensively with our relations with Mexico during the time Lind served there as Woodrow Wilson's personal representative; but, although it constitutes an important discussion of the subject, that part of the book is too much involved in detail to have the quality of personality.

There remain two biographies of important women of these political years, each of whom had a distinguished father and each of whom married a prominent husband, *Kate Chase, Dominant Daughter* by Mary M. Phelps (New York: Crowell, 1935) and *Jessie Benton Frémont* by Catherine C. Phillips (San Francisco: J. H. Nash, 1935, but out of business). Kate Chase Sprague was the daughter of Salmon P. Chase, wartime secretary of treasury, and the wife of

the war governor of Rhode Island, William Sprague. More than that she was a beauty and a political hostess to be reckoned with in her day. The book is not an adequate history, but it does give the reader a sense of having had a fairly close social relationship with the chief figures. *Jessie Benton Frémont* is better. Some of the details are new, supplied from new material, but in the main outlines it is the well known story; and it is an appealing story of her companionship and devotion to her father, Thomas Hart Benton, for a generation Missouri's powerful senator in Washington, and of her devoted, romantic love for her husband, John Charles Frémont, an explorer whose name ought not to be forgotten and the Republican party's first candidate for the presidency.

#### OUR OWN TIME

**T**HE *Autobiography of Lincoln Steffens* (2 vols. New York: Harcourt Brace, 1931) has the readable qualities due to its author's newspaper experience and the point of view of a liberal moving toward the radical position. In the wide sweep of its author's experience and understanding many events march in review and many men assume a new and living aspect.

Among these is the first Roosevelt, whose full length is drawn in *Theodore Roosevelt* (New York: Harcourt Brace, 1931) by Henry Pringle, another author of varied experience in writing. Roosevelt's daughter, Alice Roosevelt Longworth, had a partisan view to contribute in *Crowded Hours* (New York: Scribner, 1933), which however is more notable for the restraint of what it does not say than for what it does. Clara Longworth Chambrun in *The Making of Nicholas Longworth* (New York: Putnam, 1933) offered a charming personal view of the life and career, as speaker of the House of Representatives, of that delightfully tactful son-in-law of Roosevelt. For the Roosevelt who loved the scent of battle one ought to turn to Claude G. Bowers' *Beveridge and the Progressive Era* (Boston: Houghton



Mifflin, 1932), in which the very fault of overstatement conveys the zest of Roosevelt's many battles at home and abroad. There are also occasional brilliant sketches of lesser figures.

From the point of view of this article there is no question of what biography I am going to recommend for Woodrow Wilson. It is *The Woodrow Wilsons* by their daughter Eleanor Wilson McAdoo (New York: Macmillan, 1937). Other books may be used to discuss policy and achievements, but this is the personality. The book is absorbingly interesting, charming, and it carries on every page the veritable seal of truth. Its appeal will extend over a wide range, even to those as young as junior high school.

**I**F a teacher wishes for trouble it might be useful to embark on a consideration of the body of biographies of controversial figures and situations, most of it cynical, omniscient, brittle, such as *The Nine Old Men* by Drew Pearson and Robert S. Allen (Garden City: Doubleday Doran, 1936), *Mirrors of Wall Street* (New York: Putnam, 1933), *Mellon's Millions* by Harvey O'Connor (New York: John Day, 1933), which is an arraignment of the man rather than the system and would be better propaganda otherwise, or John K. Winkler's *The DuPont Dynasty* (New York: Reynal, 1935). Then there is *Father Struck It Rich* by Evalyn Walsh McLean and Boyden Sparkes (Boston: Little Brown, 1936), an indescribable book. The picture of many celebrities in Washington is past belief, but too far true. It is funny, but it is tragic. The chief usher of the White House, Ike H. Hoover, published *Forty-two Years in the White House* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1934), entertaining and, if the limitations of the point of view are kept constantly in mind, probably a valuable commentary on events and persons. The number of these books is legion, but I can not give space here to enumerate any representative part of them; nor could I undertake to evaluate them.

#### OUTSIDE OF POLITICS

**A**LL these pages have centered attention on the political scene as though that were the only part of history. That is, of course, an untenable position. For the sake of a proper sense of proportion it is always well to remember that Elizabeth was the queen who happened to be ruling over England while the famous William Shakespeare was writing plays. In *The Flowering of New England* (New York: Dutton, 1936) Van Wyck Brooks managed to produce an important and charming biography of nineteenth-century New England by devoting himself to the story of the lives and achievements of its dominant group of artists, of whom Emerson, Hawthorne, and Thoreau stand out as his geniuses, although many other men and women are present in the flesh. Thomas Carey Johnson in *Scientific Interests in the Old South* (New York: Appleton-Century, 1936) had a wholly different problem so that any comparison is perhaps unjust; but it is notable that, although the author summed up the findings of a good deal of research much needed to correct the error of the general opinion concerning the lack of intellectual interest and achievement in the South before the Civil War, he failed to re-create the scientific interest of a period, I think, because he failed to re-create the men who had those interests.

Some of the recent special biographies fill out Van Wyck Brooks' picture. *The Story of the Author of Little Women* (Boston: Little Brown, 1933) by Cornelia L. Meigs gives an easy, interesting picture of the actual home life commemorated in the famous book, which, with care, could be useful in the study of social history for junior high-school pupils and for their elders. Louisa May Alcott's father's own story is told in O. Shepard's *Pedlar's Progress: The Life of Bronson Alcott* (Boston: Little Brown, 1937). Teachers might learn a good deal about the art and practice of living and teaching from this account of experience. An effective contrast to Alcott's life

is that of Edgar Allan Poe, as an example of a man of genius who left behind him an immortal record of achievement but whose personal life was a tragic failure owing to his inability to make any kind of a working adjustment between his natural endowments and his surroundings. Edward Shanks' *Edgar Allan Poe* (New York: Macmillan, 1937) is valuable for its success in showing this human struggle and failure, in spite of the fact that the chief concern of the author, an English poet and writer of fiction, was an analysis of what Poe wrote rather than how he lived and died. Two books of cultural history particularly interesting to teachers are *Noah Webster* by Harry R. Warfel (New York: Macmillan, 1936) and *William Holmes McGuffey and His Readers* by H. C. Minnich (New York: American Book Co., 1936) spelling master and reading teacher to a people.

Any survey of social history of the American people must take account of its peculiar contribution to science. The style of J. C. Crowther's *Famous American Men of Science* (New York: Norton, 1917) is a bit difficult to read owing to its short staccato sentences and frequent unnecessarily long words. Yet it does offer some help to anyone who wishes to come to any conclusions about the relation of recent scientific progress to social change. James A. Thompson's *Count Rumford of Massachusetts* (New York: Farrar, 1935) tells in lively style the story of the eventful life of the American Benjamin Thompson who became privy councilor of state for the Elector of Bavaria. The book does not analyze and weigh his contribution to science or government, and some of the gibes are far-fetched. Constance M. Rourke's *Audubon* (New York: Harcourt Brace, 1936) is a fascinating account of the achievements of the distinguished naturalist against an unforgettable background of frontier life.

There are various biographies of men and women significant for their lives and labors in that field which we call philanthropy. The first one of these that I wish

to mention has another appeal to the younger reader. *Rebecca Gratz* by Rollin G. Osterweis (New York: Putnam, 1935) tells the story of the philanthropist who lived and wrought in Philadelphia, and who, through the description of Washington Irving to Walter Scott, became the original of Rebecca in *Ivanhoe*. This biography is also readable and authentic social and economic history of Philadelphia during her lifetime, 1781 to 1869. Laura E. Richards' *Samuel Gridley Howe* (New York: Appleton-Century, 1935) tells of her father's dynamic personality, work, and associates in the founding of Perkins Institute for the Blind in Boston and in all his many-sided career. The book is hardly critical enough in its treatment, for instance of Howe's part in John Brown's raid, but the material is handled with real literary skill. Edith Abbott's *Some American Pioneers in Social Welfare* (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1937) collects pertinent documents bearing on the lives of seven philanthropists, among them Benjamin Rush, Benjamin Franklin, Stephen Girard, Samuel G. Howe, and Dorothea Dix. The documents were, however, selected from the point of view of their work rather than their personalities. The late nineteenth century produced and the twentieth benefited from another woman's life and labor. *Jane Addams* by her nephew, James W. Linn (New York: Appleton-Century, 1935), is a simple, tender, though not sentimental book. The facts are well-handled, and it is an unforgettable description of such a great settlement center as Hull House. It is not a personal life, but, nevertheless, it succeeds in conveying a subtle sense of personality, a conviction that the history of Jane Addams' work is a record of the very essence of her being.

It ought to be remembered—and these books help us remember—that the nineteenth century was quite possibly more notable for the development of philanthropic and social consciousness than for our Civil War and Reconstruction.

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## NOTES AND NEWS

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### THE NATIONAL COUNCIL AT DETROIT

IN its capacity as the Department of Social Studies of the National Education Association, the National Council for the Social Studies held four sessions during the convention period at Detroit, June 28-30. These began at Cass Technical High School, following a joint session with the Department of Secondary Education. Assistant Superintendent Warren E. Bow, Detroit, presided. Tuesday's meetings comprised a luncheon at Hotel Wardell, followed by an afternoon session at the Wayne University Auditorium. The closing session, on Wednesday afternoon, June 30, was held at the Wayne University Auditorium. Of these sessions, the luncheon meeting and the Wednesday afternoon meeting were the most largely attended. About 300 people were present on Wednesday.

At the Monday afternoon separate session, the speakers were C. C. Barnes, director of social sciences of the public schools of Detroit, who discussed "The Function of the Homeroom in the School," and a group who considered various aspects of the subject, "Social Studies and Extra-curricular Activities." These included Robert H. Wyatt, of the Central High School, Fort Wayne, Indiana, who spoke on "The Social Science Teachers in the Extra-curricular Program;" Miss Margaret Grant, of Munger Intermediate School of Detroit, whose theme was "The Class as a Whole in Extra-curricular Functions;" Miss Katharine W. Dresden, Riverside High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, who gave particular

attention to the possibilities of extending social-studies education through forum discussions and teachers' preparation; and Mrs Edith Van Winkle, of Thornton Junior High School, Terre Haute, Indiana, who considered the Junior Red Cross as a social-studies activity. Following the presentation of the papers R. O. Hughes, of the Department of Curriculum Study of the public schools of Pittsburgh, led in an open forum discussion of the papers. There was an interesting presentation of views and conclusions based on the experience of a number of persons in the audience who took part in this discussion.

The luncheon conference on Tuesday, at 12:15 p.m., presented as its speakers William Gellermann, professor of education at Northwestern University, whose subject was "Traditions Be Damned," and R. C. Miller, professor of history at Wayne University, who spoke on "The Hope for Synthesis." Professor Gellermann's paper was sufficiently striking so that it was one of the limited number to receive special attention in the Detroit press. Professor Miller's paper was also unusual in character. Elmer Ellis, of the University of Missouri, president of the National Council, presided at this luncheon conference. This luncheon was attended by over 150 persons.

The Tuesday afternoon session had three main speakers under the guidance of Floyd D. Welch, of the Soldan High School, St. Louis, Missouri. These were assistant superintendent Virgil Stinebaugh, of the public schools of Indianapolis, who spoke on "Neglected Opportunities for Citizenship



Training in the Senior High School;" Professor Ralph K. Watkins, of the University of Missouri, whose subject was "Science in the High School and Social Studies Objectives;" and Allen Y. King, supervisor of social studies in the public schools of Cleveland, who considered "Citizenship Training Values in Commercial Subjects and Their Correlation with the Social Studies." As on Monday afternoon, R. O. Hughes led in the discussion following the presentation of the three papers.

At the concluding session of the department, C. C. Barnes, of the Detroit public schools, presided. Three speakers presented papers: Miss Edna McGuire, primary supervisor of the public schools of East Chicago, Indiana, on "Social Studies Skills and Grade Levels in the Elementary School;" Miss Mabel Snedaker, supervisor of social studies of the Elementary School at the University of Iowa, "The Development of Effective Reading Habits in the Social Studies;" Professor Howard R. Anderson, of Cornell University, "Teaching and Testing the Ability to Outline and Summarize." A brief paper written by Professor John A. Hockett, lecturer in education at the University of California, was read by the chairman on the subject, "Are Social Studies Skill Subjects?" Brief discussion followed the presentation of each of the first three papers.

Local arrangements were under the direction of C. C. Barnes, of the Detroit public schools, first vice-president of the National Council for the Social Studies. President Elmer Ellis and Ruth West, second vice-president, also attended part of the sessions but could not be present for all of them.

R. O. H.

#### ST LOUIS IN NOVEMBER

The annual fall convention of the National Council for the Social Studies will be held at the New Hotel Jefferson, St Louis, during the Thanksgiving holidays, Friday and Saturday, November 26 and 27.

Elmer Ellis of the University of Missouri, president of the National Council and edi-

tor of the recent Seventh Yearbook of the National Council, is in charge of the program. Julian C. Aldrich of Webster Groves, Mo., is chairman of the Committee on Local Arrangements.

#### NOMINATING COMMITTEE

The president of the National Council for the Social Studies has appointed a nominating committee which will report at the St Louis meeting. The members are A. C. Krey, University of Minnesota, chairman; Florence R. Tryon, Florida State College for Women; and Howard Cummings, Clayton High School, St Louis.

#### SPOKANE

The Social Studies Section of the Inland Empire Education Association meeting in Spokane in April held a panel discussion on the 1937 Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, *Education Against Propaganda*. Those participating were Norman Perring, Miss May Gonderman, Mrs Frederick Perry Noble, and Glenn B. Cunningham. Miss Ruth West introduced the panel and presided.

The Spokane unit of the Pacific Northwest Council for the Social Studies also held a luncheon in honor of Miss Sara Wambaugh, international expert on plebiscites. The speakers were Calvin Nichols, who discussed the "Implications of the Nye Investigation for the Social Studies Teacher;" Dr Norman Coleman, of Reed College, whose subject was "The Importance of a Study of Pacific Relations;" and O. C. Pratt, president of the National Education Association who spoke of "The Place of the Social Studies in the New Curriculum."

R. W.

#### COLORADO

The Spring meeting of the Colorado Social Science Teachers' Association was held on April 17 at the High School, Greeley. A discussion of "State Problems" by Professor G. S. Klemmedson was followed by a panel discussion of the first year-book

of the John Dewey Society, "The Teacher and Society."

M. E. C.

#### NEBRASKA

The twenty-fifth annual meeting of the Nebraska History Teachers Association was held at Lincoln, in collaboration with the University of Nebraska and the city schools of Lincoln, April 15-17. Professor Frederick C. Dietz of the University of Illinois delivered addresses on "The New Deal in England," "The Wonderful Generation, 1850-1870," "The First Modern Depression—1870," and "Historians I Have Known." Professor J. L. Sellers discussed "The Historian's Part in a Changing World." The paper on "Nebraska's Legislature Experiment" by Professor John P. Senning of the University of Nebraska is published in this issue of SOCIAL EDUCATION.

F. H. H.

#### SYRACUSE

A joint conference of English and social-studies teachers was held at Syracuse University on July 15. Professor Roy A. Price was in charge of the social-studies program. The Regents Inquiry into English and social-studies teaching was discussed by Dr Francis T. Spaulding, Dr Dora V. Smith, and Dr Howard E. Wilson. The possibilities of correlation in English and social studies were explored by Dr Howard C. Hill and Dr E. H. Webster. Dr Erling M. Hunt spoke on "Problems in the Teaching of Modern History," and Mr William G. Kimmel on "Instruction in Modern Problems in Social Studies." Steps were taken to establish a Western New York section of the National Council of the Social Studies.

#### CONSTITUTION CELEBRATION

The nineteen-month celebration of the formation of the Constitution will open on September 19 with ceremonies at Independence Hall, Philadelphia, where the Constitution was signed on September 19, 1787. Special celebrations will follow in the thir-

teen original states as the anniversaries of ratification occur, and in other states on the anniversaries of their admission. An elaborate program of pageants, plays, and public gatherings will be carried out under the direction of the United States Constitution Centennial Commission, established by Congress in 1935, of which the President is chairman and Representative Sol Bloom director general. The celebrations will end on April 30, 1939, the anniversary of President Washington's inauguration.

"The Sesqui-centennial Commission proposes to educate as well as to celebrate." It is proposed to give much attention to the participants in the formation of the Constitution and to the history of the ratification contest. The information bulletins stress the need for accuracy and scholarship, remarking that "this may deprive the romantic of their belief in certain picturesque details, such as the Cherry Tree story, or the Betsy Ross story, or the Prayer at Valley Forge story, to mention a few of those connected with the career of the President of the National Constitution Convention; but the gain more than justifies the loss."

The Constitution is the theme of an educational motion picture, available in both 35- and 16-millimeter width, available at minimum cost. Special stamps and medals will be issued. Creative writing and journalistic projects, essay and oratorical contests, and an "every pupil Constitution test" are planned. For further information address the Education Division, Constitution Sesquicentennial Commission, 524 House Office Building, Washington.

#### TOWARD A NEW CURRICULUM

Curriculum revision on the junior high-school level is strongly desired by junior high-school principals, but they are gravely circumscribed as to their ability to carry out their convictions. Such is the conclusion to be derived from the leading article in the *Clearing House* for May. A questionnaire survey of principals' opinions revealed widespread demand for more socialization,

guidance, subject integration, and flexibility in the junior high-school curriculums. A majority of the principals expressed the belief that as much credit should be given for the "socializing-integrative activities" (homeroom, clubs, forum, etc.) as for the core-curriculum subjects. The study is reported by Dr Laura T. Tyler, a teacher of social studies in Yonkers, New York.

A radically reconstructed curriculum now in actual use is described in the same issue of *Clearing House*. It is the "Twelve-year Sequence for Social Understanding" in the schools of Burbank, California. Organized on an integrated basis, with social studies as the core, this new course of study endeavors to provide "a sequence of social experiences in which . . . the child is confronted by, and deals with, problems similar to those of adult citizenship." Constant threads throughout the entire sequence are ten "functions of society," which are stated as: production, distribution, consumption, communication, transportation, protection and conservation, leisure time, aesthetics, ethics and education. An outline of the entire curriculum is contained in the article.

W. F. M.

#### A CORE CURRICULUM

The April issue of the *University High School Journal*, University of California, describes the core curriculum of the three senior high-school years. The tenth-grade course starts with "Personal Management," followed by "Social Living," an orientation in the community. Guidance is especially stressed in this grade, and attention given to the social program of students and to developing English skills and knowledge of social usage. In the eleventh grade pupils elect one of three American history courses—American history, American civilization, or American life, for the first half year, and political problems, social problems, or economic problems for the second half. In the twelfth year two of the six daily periods are given in the first half to elementary

psychology, or English, or consumer education, and during the second half to English, business problems, or home problems.

Several of the various courses are described in separate articles, and R. E. Brownlee describes with enthusiasm the experience of "Teaching in the Core Curriculum."

#### "PEACE SYMBOLS"

"Since all human intercourse must be through symbols, is it not strange we have not erected monuments to peace as we have to war?", inquires Zonia Baber in the March-June issue of the *Chicago Schools Journal*. Professor Baber describes various such monuments—the Statue of Liberty, the Christ of the Andes, a granite shaft on the boundary of Norway and Sweden, dedicated in 1914 to commemorate a century of peace, fourteen memorials erected on our Canadian boundary, the International Peace Bridge at Buffalo, the International Peace Park in Montana and Alberta, the International Peace Garden in North Dakota and Manitoba, the marker on the Rio Grande Bridge from Laredo, Texas, to Mexico, and various boundary peace tablets recently erected by the Kiwanis International.

#### FOREIGN POLICY REPORTS

Recent Foreign Policy Reports include "Can War Profits Be Eliminated?", by Harold Tobin and R. L. Buell (April 1); "The New Constitution of the U. S. S. R.," by Vera Micheles Dean (April 15); "Social Trends in the Third Reich," by John C. de Wilde (May 1); "The Buenos Aires Conference," by Charles G. Fenwick (July 1); "Cross Currents in Danubian Europe," by Helen Fisher (July 15); and "Mexico's Social Revolution," by Charles A. Thomson (August 1).

#### NAZI EDUCATION

The present status of science and education in national socialist Germany is reviewed and deplored in the May issue of



the *Harvard Educational Review* in an article by Fritz Lilge, a graduate of the University of Munich. History is cited as the fittest subject for politicization and is said to have been made the most important school subject in the Third Reich. Perversion of history content in the schoolbooks is illustrated by quotations. Lilge reports, however, that the content of the other social studies has been less modified in fact, although there is much talk about new aims and directions. For example, he quotes a Nazi view that "the task of geography is to strengthen in youth love and devotedness to their region of destiny." In the field of institutional reorganization, the most significant change has been the shortening of the secondary-school course by one year in order to allow for beginning the compulsory term of military service earlier.

The reader will wish to compare the foregoing article with the one by Mary K. Ascher which appeared in the May issue of the *School Review* under the title, "A Comparison of Education and National Ideals in Germany and the United States." Miss Ascher considers the present situation in the light of historical background and national philosophies. She points out that although both the United States and Germany emphasize "practical" education, the two systems are headed in opposite directions because of diametrically opposed national ideals.

W. F. M.

#### THE AMERICAN RUSSIAN INSTITUTE

Teachers of social studies, current events, and international relations will find that the American Russian Institute, 56 West 45th Street, New York City, offers a variety of material on the Soviet Union ranging from posters for exhibition, to the *Research Bulletin on the Soviet Union*, a monthly publication. The Institute is an American non-political membership organization which has been active for a number of years gathering factual material on the Soviet Union as a clearing house for accurate, unbiased information.

Exhibition material includes three new collections, "Twenty Years of Soviet Industry," "Twenty Years of Soviet Agriculture," and "Twenty Years of the Cultural Arts in the Soviet Union." These exhibitions, which are coming from Moscow this fall, will be ready for showing October first. They will consist of charts, photographs, and some sample products and models. Other material now available at the Institute includes photographs, slides and posters, and a small exhibition on mother and child. In general the only charge for the use of this material is the cost of transportation.

*The Research Bulletin on the Soviet Union* published monthly by the Institute is a valuable teaching aid for classes where the Soviet Union is studied, and is very useful for the school reference library. Each issue contains a long article on some specialized subject, a summary of the Soviet news of the preceding month, and bibliographical material—a complete list of books published in the United States concerning the USSR and a selected list of magazine articles on the Soviet Union. In addition to the Bulletin the Institute publishes pamphlets on specialized subjects several times a year.

A great deal of source material on the Soviet Union is available in the Institute's library, and the information service is always glad to answer questions of teachers and others, and to assist in compiling bibliographies.

VIRGINIA BURDICK

#### SOCIAL-STUDIES REGISTRATIONS

In the April and May issues of *School Life*, the official organ of the federal Office of Education, Carl A. Jessen and Lester B. Herlihy tabulate and analyze pupil registrations in history and in social studies in the period 1928-1934. The number of pupils in American history courses increased, but the percentage of the total enrollment in the schools reporting declined; ". . . it is fair to conclude that approximately 14 of

every 20 eligible to take the subject were pursuing it in 1934."

"World history is the most rapidly developing subject in the history field"—in 1928 a little over one-fourth of the schools offered it; in 1934 more than one-half. The total number of pupils registered in ancient, in medieval, and in modern history "did not show any marked change," but their proportions of the total enrollment declined sharply.

Mr Jessen explains the fact that less than one-third of the schools reporting offer civics in the last four years not as the result of "reduced emphasis on civic training, but as a different approach through combining civics with other subjects." Community civics showed a twenty-five per cent gain during the four years. The greatest gain, however, was made by problems of democracy, now pressing American history for leadership. Sociology and economics both gained substantially.

17,879 schools reported a total enrollment of 5,402,305 pupils in 1934, with 759,359 in American history courses, 543,930 in problems of American democracy, 475,729 in world history, 304,025 in ancient history, 270,653 in medieval and modern history, 253,438 in United States civics, 221,496 in economics, and 111,718 in sociology.

#### CHANGING PUPIL ATTITUDES

President Roosevelt's radio address on March 9 was shown to have a fairly definite effect in disposing high-school boys more favorably toward the Supreme Court reform proposal discussed in that address. Evidence on this point is presented in a brief research study by H. H. Remmers and Lawrence Whisler in *School and Society* for July 10. The technique used by these investigators in measuring specific attitudes should prove of great value for future research.

Testers who report changes in specific attitudes supposedly attributable to particular causes, such as the change reported

in the study cited in the preceding paragraph, are warned in an article appearing in *School and Society* for July 3 that they should not attach undue significance to attitude changes among high-school and college students because of the normal tendency toward instability of attitudes in those years. The author, Mapheus Smith of the University of Kansas, tested and re-tested groups of undergraduates on attitudes toward war. Although no direct effort to modify their attitudes took place in the three-to-four month interval between the tests, a substantial change of attitude did take place, which the author designates as a "spontaneous change" and which he ascribes to the intellectual flexibility of college students.

W. F. M.

#### RESEARCH TRENDS

An editorial entitled "Research in the Teaching of the Social Studies" appeared in the May issue of the *Harvard Educational Review* over the signature of Wilbur F. Murra. Basing his conclusions on a count of published magazine articles since 1929, the author generalizes that "research in the teaching of the social studies has receded during the depression. . . . Published articles dealing with the teaching of the social studies have tended during the past eight years to become more characterized by philosophizing and a priori judgments than by experimentation." After enumerating specific trends as to the subjects of research, the writer urges the point that there is "an obligation upon social studies teachers to justify with palpable evidence the extensive claims which their philosophic protagonists have been making for the social studies and to test the competence of the social studies to meet the increased responsibilities which schoolmen and a socially conscious laity have thrust upon them in the general field of social education."

#### PUBLIC AFFAIRS BIBLIOGRAPHY

An index of pamphlets on current affairs,

listing 660 titles with annotations and prices, has been published by the Office of Education (Bulletin, 1937, No. 3. 10 cents). Address the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C.

### CONSERVATION

*Conservation in the Education Program* by William H. Bristow and Katherine M. Cook has been published by the United States Office of Education (Bulletin, 1937, No. 4. 78 pages. 10 cents. Address Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C.). The bulletin considers conservation as a national policy, conservation in the school program, representative practices in conservation education, attention to conservation in teacher-education institutions, and the work of governmental and other agencies for conservation. A bibliography is appended.

*The Future of the Great Plains*, a report to the President of the Great Plains Committee, may be purchased of the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., for forty cents. It discusses the general physical characteristics of the area, the use and misuse of lands and water, and a program of readjustment and development.

*The Tennessee Valley Authority*, 1933-37, available without charge from the TVA, gives an account of navigation, flood control, electric power, conservation, and defense as developed in the Tennessee Valley project.

### MOTION PICTURE GUIDES

A guide to "The Toast of New York," a photoplay based on the life of Jim Fisk, has been published by Educational and Recreational Guides, Inc., 138 Washington Street, Newark, New Jersey (single copies, 10 cents; 2 to 10 copies, 7 cents; 11 to 99 copies, 3 cents; 100 to 999 copies, 2 cents). Other titles include "Victoria the Great," "Conquest" (Napoleon), "A Servant of the People" (the Constitution), "Last of the Mohicans," "The Good Earth," "Tale of

Two Cities," "Captains Courageous," and "Tom Sawyer."

### PERSONAL

Howard R. Anderson, for the past several years assistant professor of history and head of social studies in the University High School at the State University of Iowa, is now assistant professor at Cornell University.

Merle R. Curti, formerly Dwight Morrow professor of history at Smith College, is now professor of history at Teachers College, Columbia University.

Howard E. Wilson of the Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, will be on leave during the academic year 1937-38. Wilbur F. Murra will be instructor in the Graduate School of Education during the year.

The University of Minnesota conferred the honorary degree Doctor of Laws on Henry Johnson of Columbia University on June 14. President Coffman's citation read:—

Master of the art of teaching, a scholar whose contributions to your chosen field of history merit the admiration and praise of all who know them, a man whose life has been devoted to the elevation of the standards of historical scholarship and instruction, a classroom leader whose power to make learning exciting is measured by the fact that you can evoke the liveliest of student interest and discussion in the first grade or the graduate seminar, pre-eminent as a teacher of teachers; because of your distinguished achievement in a career that began with graduation from this University, the Regents of the University of Minnesota, on recommendation of the faculties, confer upon you, Henry Johnson, the degree of Doctor of Laws, honoris causa, with all the rights and privileges pertaining to that degree.

*Readers are invited to send in items for "Notes and News." Items for October should be sent at once.*

*Contributors to this issue include Mary E. Christy, Elmer Ellis, F. H. Heck, R. O. Hughes, A. C. Krey, Wilbur F. Murra, and Ruth West.*



## BOOK REVIEWS

### **William Holmes McGuffey and His Readers.**

By Harvey C. Minnich. New York: American Book Company, 1936. Pp. xi, 203. \$2.25.

### **Old Favorites from the McGuffey Readers.**

Edited by Harvey C. Minnich. New York: American Book Company, 1936. Pp. xiii, 482. \$3.50, the two volumes \$5.00.

Perhaps the reviewer is not a proper person to discuss these volumes. He belongs to the great company of those spending their youth in the country or small towns, who gained their first knowledge and appreciation of the riches of English literature from the old-fashioned school readers; and whose ethical standards were, at least, not lowered by some of the disguised sermons they read in McGuffey or Appleton. The writer can today recite many of the selections reprinted here, and others besides. Like Herbert Quick, he can say: "... when I did come to read the English classics, I felt as one who meets in after years a charming person with whom he has already had a chance encounter on the train."

Long before Mark Sullivan in Vol. II of *Our Times* proclaimed the importance of McGuffey in the American scene, in 1927, a McGuffey cult was developing, though much more has been written since that time. Now the various editions have become collectors' items, many McGuffey societies have been organized, Henry Ford has had the whole series reprinted, and there is a McGuffey museum at Miami University.

Many have never seen a set of the readers which are scorned by the educationalists

of today. There were six of them, made primarily for ungraded country schools. The first three were largely concerned with the mechanics of reading and introduced several ideas new to textbooks of the time, including the lavish use of pictures illustrating the stories. The stories themselves were simple, and many inculcated moral lessons—truthfulness, honesty, uprightness, kindness, courtesy, and thrift. The other volumes were largely made up of literary selections, both prose and poetry, drawn from a wide variety of sources, and representing every style of composition. The Fifth and Sixth Readers were not meant for pupils in the corresponding years of school attendance, but contained material suited to those of high-school mentality.

The first volume of the two is an attempt to reproduce the atmosphere of the Ohio country in 1836, to tell of McGuffey's life, and finally to give the history of the readers with an estimate of their influence. The author is dean emeritus of Miami University and curator of the McGuffey museum. The second volume contains reproductions of the pages containing various selections drawn from all of the readers from the First through the Sixth. The selections were made by a committee which included, among others, such contradictory personalities as Henry Ford and James M. Cox, Hugh S. Fullerton and Simeon D. Fess, Hamlin Garland and John H. Finley.

William Holmes McGuffey, a son of a Scotch immigrant, was born in Washington County, Pennsylvania, in 1800, but two years later the family removed to the Con-

necticut Reserve. He entered Washington College in 1819, and before he graduated in 1826 was elected professor in the young Miami University. Ten years at Miami (where he was ordained to the Presbyterian ministry), three years as president of Cincinnati College, four years as president of Ohio University and two years at Woodward College followed. In 1845 he became professor of mental and moral philosophy at the University of Virginia, where he remained until his death in 1873. Before and after entering college the young man followed the usual custom of teaching in country schools, where books were few and unsatisfactory. Many of them were English in origin and unsuited to frontier conditions. The idea of a series of American readers made expressly for country schools came very early to the young professor, and, when approached by a Cincinnati publisher in 1834 or 1835, he was ready. The First and Second Readers were published in 1836, the Third and Fourth in 1837, to be followed later by the Fifth and Sixth. The series became the most popular set of textbooks ever printed, running to forty-one editions, though some of these contained only minor changes.

With the development of a so-called science of education, the books came to be scorned by the educationalists. However, it is much to be doubted whether their elaborate schemes of "character education" are half so effective as the impressions gained unconsciously by the lessons and the fables of the early volumes of the series. Many of us who deal with youth are quite sure that the later generations know less of, and care less for, English literature than those we knew earlier.

While the first volume adds considerably to our knowledge, unfortunately the author is not a historian. The volume lacks something both in organization and proportion, and it fails to present a complete and satisfactory picture of the man, though the influence of the series is adequately set forth. The volume of selections presents, perhaps,

an adequate view of the readers, though the reviewer misses many of his old favorites. Nevertheless, the volumes are interesting and important to every student of social history.

HOLLAND THOMPSON

College of the City of New York.

**A New American History.** By W. E. Woodward. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1936. Pp. xii, 900. \$4.50.

The critics buried "Abie's Irish Rose" when first it opened on the New York stage—but the corpse lived on for five long years and recently has been revived and dug up for a sixth. Similarly, the critics buried W. E. Woodward's *New American History* when it first appeared a year ago. Messrs De Voto, Schlesinger, Nevins, and Com-mager dealt their blows and danced upon the grave. And yet the book lives on, sells many thousands of copies, and has lately been selected by the Literary Guild of America as a "bonus book."

What is the secret? Are the critics wrong? Echo answers "No!" As a basic, definitive history, the book is bad. Surely, one should not confine one's knowledge of Lord Jeffrey Amherst to the alleged fact that he advocated wiping out the Indians by means of smallpox. Surely it is strange that "the most important feature of the battle of Shiloh is that it was fought in the state of Mississippi"—since actually it was fought in Tennessee. And so forth. And so on. There *are* mistakes, too many of them, and some are serious. Moreover, as the critics have not hesitated to point out, the book is badly balanced; important aspects of American History have been neglected—cultural, social, and, to a less extent, economic. True! All too true!

But haven't the critics been neglecting something? Granted that the book is no great contribution to the scientific literature of American history, has it not some other values? Mr Woodward has been at great pains to dig out little-publicized items

of our history, historical "believe-it-or-nots." He has shown skill in developing and bringing to life many leading American characters. He has boldly interpreted the facts and trends as he sees them—not definitively, often vulnerably, but in such a way that he sets up enticing men of straw and sometimes of stiffer substance to stimulate and challenge the alert reader. He has savagely attacked some of the most undesirable and apocryphal of our complacent American traditions. He has dared to gaze upon hallowed American institutions from a position slightly left of center. He has not hesitated to call America to task for some of her undoubted sins. Finally, he has presented his chosen facets of American history in a lively and interesting style, which is something that many a more traditional and scholarly historian has failed to do.

What, then, are the values of the book? To the professional student of history, seeking only the new, the undoubted, and the well-authenticated—none! To the "textbook-teacher"—many, if taken with a grain of salt and a checking of the doubtful; it gives some interesting and unusual trimmings to hang on the all-too-barren tree of textbook facts. To the lay reader, who otherwise might be reading *The Corpse in the Green Gloves* or something comparable—many; he will learn a good deal of history, most of it correct, much of it worth knowing, and all of it interesting. If Mr Woodward succeeds in arousing an interest in American history and a distrust of some of our more prissy and overstuffed traditions, perhaps he may be forgiven some of his more heinous sins.

But Messrs Hart and Channing, Bancroft and Fiske, and the other established and scholarly historians may rest easily in their niches, for Mr Woodward is most unlikely to shoulder his way in among them. At least, this time.

JOHN VAN DUYN SOUTHWORTH

Birch Wathen School  
New York City

**The Colonial Period of American History. The Settlements.** By Charles M. Andrews. New Haven: Yale University Press, Vol. I, 1934. Pp. 551. \$4.00. Vol. II, 1936. Pp. 407. \$4.00.

The author, during his forty years in research and teaching of American colonial history, has on several occasions given us illuminating summaries of his findings; but the comprehensive work so long awaited did not begin to appear until 1934, when the first volume was published. Professor Andrews and Professor Herbert L. Osgood were the first scholars to emphasize the fact that, to understand American history properly, the colonies must be studied with reference to their place in the British Empire and not as comparatively isolated units. Professor Andrews went further than Osgood by including within the scope of his discussion the British West Indies as well as the colonies on the mainland. That would seem to be the true perspective, since it is the same as that of the British administration in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Beginning with the European background the author gives an excellent picture of the temper of English life in the sixteenth century and the emergence of an ambitious middle class whose aspirations are intimately linked with distant settlements. The second chapter is especially notable, emphasizing as it does England's commercial activities. In the first forty years of the seventeenth century rapidly accumulating capital sought newer areas for operation, other than those in the older regions of European trade. "Thus the early seventeenth century presents a shifting scene and a new outlook. . . . Medieval methods and the medieval conception of the social order were threatened at their foundations by the forces of a new individualism; in fact, medieval habits and standards were breaking through though they were not yet broken and were not to be broken for many a long year" (p. 75). The remainder of the



volume is concerned with the first half century of the settlements of Virginia, Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, as well as of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and Bermuda. Throughout the book there is an interrelationship among these enterprises, whose essential unity may be traced to the energetic activities of the incorporated companies of the homeland. While Professor Andrews seems to stress more the material than the religious motive for colonization, he does speak of the latter as an important factor in overseas migration. He is less sympathetic to the Puritans than is Professor Samuel Eliot Morison, and the social and cultural history of Massachusetts is inadequately handled. Professor Andrews' main interest, however, is institutional history, and his range of knowledge here is unsurpassed.

The second volume covers the settlement and early years of Rhode Island, Connecticut, Barbados, and Maryland. Through the complexities of conflicting materials on the early years of Rhode Island, Professor Andrews picks his way surely and gives on the whole a friendly, yet a dispassionate, critical estimate of Roger Williams. He demolishes many time-worn traditions, for example proving that no question of a search for religious freedom entered into the founding of Connecticut but rather "the allurements of a fertile valley." He also provides the reader with a much needed corrective to the persistent misunderstanding of Puritan "democracy," observing that "the ideas of the Connecticut Puritans regarding the political and religious organization of society [were] far removed from the democratic ideas of later times" (p. 112). He is continually warning the student against accepting the older interpretations of George Bancroft and his school, who saw in the seventeenth century foreshadowings of the later American Revolution. Whatever rights and privileges the colonists claimed were the same that Englishmen everywhere were then claiming. It is always necessary to keep in mind the fundamental

difference between the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, for the former reveals an English world in America, "with but little in it that can strictly be called American; the eighteenth everywhere presents to the view an Anglo-American conflict." The story of that conflict will be well worth waiting for. One closes these volumes with the feeling of tremendous reserve power in the author's possession. He is a judge weighing the evidence in the light of his own researches and with a magistral, but not humorless, air, he renders his decisions.

MICHAEL KRAUS

College of the City of New York

**The Federal Union, A History of the United States to 1865.** By John D. Hicks. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1937. Pp. xviii, 734. \$3.50.

Professor Hicks of the University of Wisconsin gives here results from eighteen years of teaching. The book opens in clear, quick style with conditions in the Old World which led to discovery of the New. It centers then upon the enterprise of Englishmen in America describing their institutions of property, labor, religion, government, and the contrasts between Virginia and New England. It moves swiftly through the Revolution, skilfully keeping the reader in touch with the future of the nation beyond the Appalachians. The same is true of the narrative upon the development of the Union to the advent of Jacksonian Democracy. Western land policy is brought to the fore; the War of 1812 treated with regard for the aims of frontiersmen as well as the grievances of merchants on the seaboard. The "new nationalism" following appears in its political and economic phases; but religion, education, art, literature, and the observations of foreigners receive attention. While presenting the episodes that led into the struggle over slavery, the author also keeps in sight other forces transforming and revealing America—newspapers and lyceums, inventions and scientific discov-

eries, historical writing, architecture, art, and music, organized labor, changes in public education, temperance and prohibition, the movement for peace. He sees the caravans on the trail to Santa Fé, missionaries and settlers pushing into Oregon, 'Forty-Niners hurrying to California, for what they were apart from the quarrel over slavery. Responsive to the majority of those days, the author treats the Compromise of 1850 as if it might have ended the quarrel. He diverts the reader with a chapter entitled "peace and prosperity," upon railroads, clipper ships, manufacturing, profits from cotton and a revived tobacco industry, machinery in agriculture, immigration, and foreign affairs. Yet this very chapter could not escape the emotions in *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. Minorities, North and South, would not heed the will of the majority. The narrative on the Civil War brings out the essentials only of martial affairs and gives no more than very briefly the troubles with Great Britain and France. Other topics are the expansion of agriculture, new land laws, the development of heavy industry, changes in business, questions of finance, currency, and banking. Emancipation, the "Copperheads," and the election of 1864 fill the last pages up to Lee's surrender and the assassination of Lincoln. There the author stops abruptly. His friend, Frederic L. Paxson, has already written upon the history of the United States from 1865 for the same publisher (*The New Nation*, rev. and enl. ed. 1927).

A descriptive notice has no place for debate over interpretations of evidence or criticism of its selection. Some exception might be taken, but the author's mastery of facts and knowledge of special studies is impressive. His narrative is lucid; his arrangement expert, neither cramped in arbitrary units nor rambling with time. His book has no quirks of methodology. He takes the reader straight to the business of history—information, reason, and conclusion. He enlivens the discussion of public affairs with sketches of many notable per-

sons. An illustrative feature is the sequence of maps showing the ratio between time and distance of travel from New York in 1800, 1830, and 1860. Another gives densities of population similarly. Both students and teachers, especially those in secondary schools, will find good bibliographical footnotes aptly placed to incite further study. Specialists will think of other books that should have been included. These citations are also gathered conveniently with cross references at the end. There is an adequate index.

ARTHUR B. DARLING

Phillips Academy  
Andover, Massachusetts

**The Civil War and Reconstruction.** By James G. Randall. Boston: Heath, 1937. Pp. xviii, 959. \$5.00.

This volume is a textbook on the college level covering American history during the years 1850 to 1877. Its author, a professor of history at the University of Illinois, has been a student of the period for many years and has specialized on the constitutional problems of the Civil War and on the biography of Abraham Lincoln. His book on the first subject, *Constitutional Problems Under Lincoln* (New York: Appleton, 1926), is an authoritative treatment, and his work on Lincoln is best represented by his sketch in the *Dictionary of American Biography*. *The Civil War and Reconstruction* is divided into three unequal parts: 1850-1861, 222 pages; 1861-1865, 466 pages; 1865-1877, 191 pages. The first section has three chapters on economic and social conditions in the North and South and then a running account of events down to the outbreak of the war. The second section is partly a chronological account of military operations and partly a topical discussion of the problems of wartime life and government. The third section is a chronological narrative of Reconstruction, much compressed because of lack of space.

The author's fundamental thesis is that the conflict was neither irrepressible nor

the product of simple causes. The conflict, he believes, might have been avoided "supposing of course that something more of statesmanship, moderation, and understanding, and something less of professional patrioteering, slogan-making, face-saving, political clamoring and propaganda had existed on both sides" (p. vii). He has endeavored to explain at length the complex character of the conflict, to avoid easy explanations such as "economic determinism" and to set forth "the feelings and problems of a civilization in a time of distortion, stress and passion" (p. vi). His pages give evidence that he has studied carefully the voluminous literature dealing with the confused epoch. He has presented to the secondary-school teacher a splendid reference work supplemented by a comprehensive bibliography. His approach is sound, his scholarship is thorough, his style is pleasing. We may quarrel with the proportioning of the three parts on the ground that the Civil War is treated too extensively if compared with the bulk of the years of the period. However, it may be said in justification that life was much more complicated in those perilous four years and event piled upon event.

The author has made a careful and scholarly effort and the conclusions are trustworthy. "To compare the age of Pierce and Buchanan with that of Grant and Hayes and Cleveland is to realize how a new race has come upon the stage, how old patterns have disappeared, and how a new set of cultural and governmental processes has emerged" (p. viii). All teachers of American history who are interested in broadening their views and enlarging their understanding of this significant period should become familiar with this able analysis.

ROY F. NICHOLS

University of Pennsylvania

**A History of the United States Since the Civil War.** By Ellis Paxson Oberholtzer. Volume V: 1888-1901. New York: Macmillan, 1937. Pp. xi, 791. \$4.50.

The publication of this volume, preceded as it was by the death of Dr Oberholtzer, brings to a close the great work whose first volume was published just twenty years ago. It was the author's purpose, as a former student and avowed disciple of John Bach McMaster, to continue his work and to do for the period since the Civil War what McMaster had done for the period before it. To this end Oberholtzer worked thoroughly and indefatigably, for more than twenty-five years. Though he lived only to carry his effort through the turn of the century he did accomplish the five volumes that he had mentioned—some thought unwisely—at the start, and surely had reason to feel that he had in fairly large measure achieved his purpose. The earlier volumes were received with high acclaim as continuing the McMaster tradition by presenting a rapidly flowing descriptive narrative of what aimed to be, in the broader sense, the social history of the time. The later volumes, to be sure, have been received with lessened enthusiasm as the political story has tended to crowd out the social and economic aspects.

All five volumes are marked by a straightforward and a generally interesting style, perhaps even more readable than McMaster's. All five volumes disclose an extensive spadework use of congressional documents, newspapers, and periodicals. All five volumes reveal a surprising combination of objectivity and partisanship, combined at times with a virile spirit of vituperation. All five volumes, though filled with frank and often caustic opinions about both men and measures, yet avoid almost completely any attempts at a broader interpretation of events. All five volumes aim to tell the story of the American people as a social rather than a political entity, though this becomes increasingly less true as the work proceeds. All five volumes display a lack of even balance both in choice of topics and in space devoted to them. In fact the five successive volumes achieve a high degree of unity in almost everything except



the length of the period that each covered. Pressed by time itself and by reviewers—one of whom took pains to point out that on the basis of the six years, 1865-1872, covered by the first two volumes the proposed five volumes would carry the story only to the inauguration of President Garfield—the author lengthened his stride and in his last three volumes covered about thirty years. This lengthened stride naturally explains in part the increasing exclusion of material on the social and economic side. In the fifth volume only one chapter, "Material Progress and Social Reform," is definitely earmarked for this field. Yet the reader is led to the conclusion that the author did not find these omissions as difficult to stomach as would most contemporary writers of history. For even in the light of his old-fashioned liberalism he displays an amazing lack of understanding of the significant implications of the social and economic forces that were developing in the period about which he writes.

This constitutes the chief weakness of the history as a whole and certainly keeps it from being a work of the first order. This weakness is notably apparent in this fifth volume which covers the turbulent period of the late 80's and the 90's. In writing about the War with Spain, for example, the author seems to have reckoned with such recent and critical studies as *The Martial Spirit* by Walter Millis (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1931), which he cites in a few cases, but in his discussions of the growth of business and industry, the struggles of the labor movement, the threatening cloud of agrarian discontent, and related topics, he seems not even to recognize the existence of two sides to the questions. He has no sympathy for Bryan, and perhaps little understanding. His treatment of such radicals as Altgeld and Debs does not reflect an understanding of the movements these men represented. His work is probably of greater value to scholars than to teachers, for social-science teachers in these times are chiefly interested in the social and the economic

aspects of a period and are seeking also suggestive interpretative material. On both these counts the author is weighed in the balance and found, if not wanting, at least far less weighty than many other historians of our time. These volumes may be of value to teachers in the social sciences, however, in furnishing illustrative material in the fields of politics or personalities.

ALLEN R. FOLEY

Dartmouth College

**The Older Middle West, 1840-1880.** By Henry Clyde Hubbart. New York: Appleton-Century, 1936. Pp. ix, 305. \$3.50.

In the writing of the history of the West, early historians emphasized the establishment of community life and later were followed by the Turner school of craftsmen. To these studies may now be added the excellent book from the pen of Professor Hubbart who has felt that the "Middle West as a settled section has not been given extensive treatment" (p. v.). Certainly he has offered a contribution in an evaluation of the part played by the Middle Region during a formative period in American life. He has approached this study by the usual methods, political, economic, social, and cultural, although the first dominates. This can be justified, however, by his opinion that "the people of the free West in the forties and fifties were a political people" (p. 10). Indeed, the economic and social phases are used to set the stage, and the main core of the book traces the political developments that culminated in the Civil War. Only the last thirty-seven pages deal with the results of that struggle. The author shows that the Older Middle West before the conflict was not a compact section but divided into parts, the lake region and the Ohio and Wabash river valleys with the former drawing most of its native-born inhabitants and heritage from New England and New York and the latter deriving its background chiefly from the South. A tier of border counties, located roughly in a line across the center of Ohio, Indiana, and

Illinois, also was a dominant factor particularly in the election of 1860 in those states. It was in the lake region where the young Republican party gathered its strength and took to itself former Democratic leaders such as John Wentworth of Chicago. In the southern section, the Democrats held sway and even the Republicans there were not as radical as their northern brethren.

Emphasis throughout the book is placed on the lower Middle West, however. Douglas, as the leader of the Democratic party, is given more attention than any other, including Lincoln. He is shown as the torch-bearer of progressive western Democracy and thoroughly western in thought. His part in the repeal of the Missouri Compromise and his espousal of squatter sovereignty as a solution of territorial expansion, in a day when the issue of slavery was all-engrossing, seemed misunderstood by both the upper West and the South. This misunderstanding brought about his downfall, for the upper West interpreted him as pro-southern in intention and therefore repudiated him. Later, when it was realized that he advocated a plan that seemed more favorable to the West than to the South, it cost him the support of the latter section. Throughout, the importance of the Middle West as one of the testing grounds of American democracy is given adequate attention. Despite differences over method, both the upper and lower middle valley were united in spirit at least, for here were men possessed of "a common spirit of western optimism and progress" (p. 6).

The space devoted to the fifteen years following the Civil War is less than students of that period might desire, although the general treatment is extremely good. The greater attention given the lower Middle West, too, may create the impression that the upper or lake region played a secondary part. Students of the recent period interested in the impact of a growing urbanism may regret that the influence of this mighty movement does not play a big part in the

story as it is told. Incidentally, it might have been shown also that the free white laborer considered the southern slaveholder a capitalist in the same class with the capitalist mill owner or wealthy landholder of the East, and at times the antagonism towards the institution of slavery, held by that group, seemed born of a sectional dislike and a class fear of what an institution considered capitalistic might mean to the common man. But these points are of minor significance, for, through careful analysis and interpretation of a mine of information, the author has given students of western history a valuable book and one which will not be supplanted for accuracy and fairness in many years.

BESSIE LOUISE PIERCE

The University of Chicago

**The West in American History.** By Dan Elbert Clark. New York: Crowell, 1937. Pp. xi, 682. \$3.50.

This is a textbook written for college classes in the history of the American West. The author, now professor of history at the University of Oregon, is a native of Iowa and received his education at the University of Iowa. He has written extensively both on the Middle West and on the Pacific Northwest and has long been considered a master in this field of American history. The present volume is notable for its completeness. It begins with a survey of the physical features of the continent and its early Indian inhabitants, and moves forward with exploration and settlement through more than four centuries to the end of the frontier as an influence on national life. The story of intrepid Spanish, French, and English explorers, of the conflict for possession of the great interior and the final appearance of a native American frontiersman more than a match in the Revolution for Old World types makes up the first part of the book. A second section carries the settler across the Middle West to the plains and mountains, revealing the Western pressure for liberal land laws

and government aid for transportation, and traces the slow social-economic-political evolution of a typical American way of life in the great valley of the Mississippi. The process by which states were made and culture achieved out of wilderness beginnings is well described and the spirit of the section, most American, is caught in these pages as in no other textbook in the field. The third unit deals with the Far West and treats of explorers, trappers, and settlers and of the new and greater problems of law and order, transportation, and exploration of natural resources which were there faced. Such chapter headings as "Manifest Destiny," "The Stagecoach Era," "The Mineral Empire," and "Cattle Kings and Land Grabbers" indicate the sweep attempted but hardly show the painstaking detail which has been crowded into these pages. The reader will find few characters and few events which do not receive well matured and well balanced treatment.

The westward expansion that builded the Cotton Kingdom is the only portion of the book not well done. Here Professor Clark still labors under the old Abolition notions, which prevent a sound treatment of Southern institutions on their way west and the effect of frontier conditions on them. We yet lack a careful study along this line, and we know little of the differences between plantations and slaves in the older and newer parts of America.

This volume will prove of great value to those who wish a compact yet full treatment of the westward movement. The secondary teacher will find it a first-class reference book for his own uses.

AVERY CRAVEN

The University of Chicago

**Man's Worldly Goods.** By Leo Huberman. New York: Harper, 1936. Pp. xii, 349. \$2.50.

This is an attempt to set the stage for the heroes and villains of economic theory, the setting being the story of how men, women, and children have labored for their bread

and butter, cake and frosting, from the middle ages until now. In the first sixteen chapters of his book, the author arranges his stage; in the final six chapters, he leads forth the star performers from Adam Smith to John A. Hobson and endeavors to compel them to speak so that even young people may comprehend the lines, unravel the plot. The stage is well set; but the actors, as they are made to speak, sometimes falter in their parts. The author has a teacher's interest in his task, having graduated originally from the Newark Normal School and taught in New York City. Besides being a teacher, he has been a traveler, "wage slave," and a student at Columbia University and the London School of Economics. For a time, too, he was associate editor of *Scholastic*.

To make economic history interesting and economic theory "exciting and meaningful" (to quote the preface) are enticing goals. The first, he has achieved by good exposition and the telling use of illustrative quotations, leading the reader to expect, by way of conclusion, a clear statement of the worker's position in the modern world, his gains and losses, perhaps, as compared with the medieval worker. But the reader is doomed to disappointment. The author's second goal eludes him, chiefly, I believe, because he shifts his emphasis from description and analysis to vague Marxian moralizing. This tempts him to interpolate too many quotations solely for the sake of clinching his arguments and thus to sap his style. It also leads him to conclude by denouncing the modern angels of darkness, Hitler, Mussolini, and War. In chapter xx the author reviews the various attempts to explain why depressions recur periodically. Then he jumps to a chapter of praise for Russia's planned economic life, as though planning in itself would of necessity improve the worker's lot. The Nazis and Fascists also plan! Much as we need to plan our economic life these days, surely planning is not our goal. The explanation of Marx's economic theories is good as far as it goes, though entirely uncritical. A more



lucid and comprehensive, yet scarcely more difficult, discussion of Marxian economics is to be found in Bertrand Russell's *Freedom versus Organization* (New York: Norton, 1934).

For those uninitiated into economic history, the first eighteen chapters of this book are recommended. They are readable and scholarly. For those wishing to venture further, the excellent bibliography contains many tempting suggestions. Its bibliography alone, in fact, makes this a valuable book for secondary-school libraries.

E. LEWIS B. CURTIS

State Normal School  
Oneonta, New York

**Consumption and Standards of Living.** By Carle C. Zimmerman. New York: Van Nostrand, 1936. Pp. xvi, 602. \$3.50.

Teachers in the social studies are becoming increasingly interested in the problems of the consumer and his standard of living; and this volume performs a most valuable service in its approach to these problems. It not only concerns itself with a comprehensive study of empirical matters, but it also discusses existing theory. The material is divided into five major sections: (1) possible definitions and laws of consumption presented in historical perspective; (2) an analysis of the role of food, of housing, of clothing, of sundries, and an analysis of spending versus saving; (3) a series of summaries of early and modern studies of the consumer's budget, of the studies of the LePlay school, of the Russian school, and of the American schools; (4) an analysis of the range of theory concerning the problem of the consumer, including classical economic theory, institutional theory, Austrian hedonism, mathematical hedonism; (5) a concluding summary of the author's major suggestions. The volume will be valuable to any thorough student of the social studies as a reference work. We find not only the existing budget studies summarized but also the pertinent principles of economics and sociology. The examina-

tion of LePlay's work as regards both theory and investigation seems especially significant. Furthermore, the book concerns itself with both rural and urban groups. The comprehensive nature of consumption in both areas seems especially useful because of the increasing interest in obtaining balance between urban and rural trends.

In analyzing the book two questions arise. First, it would seem wise in any investigation of consumption to spend more time on the discussion of the distribution of income and its relation to consumption. It would have been possible to make more use of Brookings Institution studies of consumption and production in relation to the standard of living. Recent investigations have tended to support the hypothesis that unequal distribution of income may be a consistent cause of depressions in the standard of living. Second, the book lacks a discussion of conservation of human and natural resources as part of the consumer problem, which is necessary for an adequate background to the problem of consumption.

ARTHUR HENRY MOEHLMAN

Ohio State University

**The Psychology of the Unadjusted School Child.** By John J. B. Morgan. New York: Macmillan, rev. ed. 1936. Pp. vi, 339. \$2.25.

In this revised edition the author, who has served as professor of psychology and director of the psychological clinic at Northwestern University for many years, presents facts and principles gathered from intensive study of 2,500 children. The volume, like other Morgan books, is written with commendable clarity and avoids technical and involved psychological terms. It should be valuable to secondary-school teachers in their work of guiding and directing children into habits of mental health. Adult maladjustments, known as functional disorders, usually result from faulty habits that originate in childhood days. While the author realizes that complete "case study" methods can not be used by the classroom

teacher, yet there is throughout the book strong emphasis upon the need of adapting education to the pupil. Special attention is given to the child's personal habits, which the regular school curriculum often neglects. The teacher is led to realize the importance of studying the pupil's home and community environment in an impersonal and unemotional manner. She may help the child in the early stages of his development, but her real objective should be to teach the child to make his own adjustments.

The twenty chapters of this volume are largely concerned with the social aspects of human behavior. Attempts of the pupil toward adjustment that result in success, failure, or compromise are described in terms of the child's life situations. Daydreaming, fears, feelings of insecurity, defense mechanisms, instability, compensation, delinquency, and memory distortions are treated in a realistic and understandable manner. Critical readers may object to the lack of emphasis upon organic disorders as a cause of maladjustment. One also gathers the impression that possibly the author expects too much from the teacher in correcting pupil maladjustments acquired in early childhood. The treatment given to mental disturbances in the realm of sex, while inadequate, is sane and wholesome. Chapter xx is entitled, "Mental Hygiene" but the whole book is devoted to this subject. Each chapter contains "Practical Hints for Teachers" and "Questions for Review." It is hoped that no secondary-school teacher can read this book without becoming more tolerant of deviations in other persons. "What a teacher must do, therefore, is to cultivate the ability to recognize clearly all defects and peculiarities in conduct and character, without any feeling of blame, resentment, or horror at the discovery" (p. 3). If this book is able to accomplish this only, it has served a very useful purpose.

A. T. STANFORTH

Sewanhaka High School  
Floral Park, New York

**Foundations of Character and Personality.** By George Herbert Betts. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1937. Pp. xii, 371. \$2.00.

Published posthumously by colleagues of the author, this book is a fitting close to many years of study and effort toward clear definition of some abstruse terms. Character is presented as a strictly functional component of personality, with its roots in the social mores and its physical basis dependent upon neural and glandular determiners. With an adequate treatment of sociological factors affecting character and personality development both past and present, the author employed, largely, the genetic approach to the whole subject. Attitudes, ideals, beliefs, and codes are clearly analyzed into elements of social pressure, educational factors, and individual responses. Outstanding is the functional nature of character and personality as seen by the author. A nice balance is held between social responsibility and individual initiative in the development of the character. A clear picture is given of the processes of growth and maturation, with their end results of individual traits and conduct patterns. The relationship of motives and attitudes, of beliefs and ideals, of heredity and environment—these and other factors are clearly and concisely given place in the author's discussion of the teaching of ideals and ethical conduct. The entire study of physical foundations of personality is clear and convincing without being too technical for the average reader.

The book is designed for use above the secondary level and suggests itself easily for either textual or supplementary purposes. It embraces in comprehending style the essential elements of elementary sociology and psychology. It appears particularly to be recommended as a handbook for effective guidance to the teacher of early patterns in social behavior; and its value for teachers of maladjusted pupils cannot be questioned, providing that the need is for a general but elementary handbook in this field. Chapter v on physical foundations of personality,

chapter vii on basic motives in conduct, and chapter viii on early social behavior patterns could be read profitably by all parents interested in a better understanding of the child. The style is clear and the scientific facts are from the best available authorities.

DOUGLAS E. LAWSON

Southern Illinois State Normal University  
Carbondale, Illinois

**The New Culture.** By A. Gordon Melvin.  
New York: Reynal & Hitchcock, 1937.  
Pp. 296. \$3.50.

Asserting that modern civilization is now cracking under the tensions and contradictions of its own inner structure, Professor Melvin believes that isolated reforms are valueless and that, if a new culture is to be born, it must be preceded by popular philosophic reconstruction of a fundamental nature. That, he says, is the task of modern education, for schoolmen especially must recognize the fact that the culture of today is self-antagonistic—in its material and technological aspects it is essentially rational, dynamic, relativistic, and unified, while in its spiritual and educational aspects it is predominantly emotional, static, absolutistic, and disintegrated. The result is intellectual confusion and social strife. The remedy lies in a radical reconstruction through education to conform to the realities of the material world as revealed and created by science. Today our basic need is for a reconstructed educational philosophy which will be grounded firmly in the new physics, chemistry, psychology, and social science. For forty years and more we educators have trudged enthusiastically about the dry desert of methods, means, and measurements, oblivious in practice if not in theory to the major imperative of education—the absolute necessity of grappling seriously with modern life in terms of its aims, ends, values.

The great merit of this volume is that it is concerned with the controlling spirit of education rather than with its structure

and mechanism. It presents something of a basic philosophical orientation without which much of our teaching, however well-intentioned, will remain functionally sterile and strangely reminiscent of tinkling bells and clanging cymbals. From such an outlook Professor Melvin deals critically with the elementary school, the secondary school, the college, and the teacher preparation program. Unfortunately "students have come through their [teacher] training stuffed with knowledge, examinable, successful, able to write definition after definition, erudite in the subject matter of education. Yet these students have oftentimes not been themselves humanized, unable to understand their own lives, deal with their own problems, unacquainted with children, knowing only one form of practice, able to talk but unable to teach." They are incapable of understanding that "teachers must be the liaison officers between the community of today and the community of tomorrow."

EDWARD G. OLSEN

Colgate University

**America's March toward Democracy. History of American Life: Political and Social.** By Harold Rugg. Ginn, 1937. Pp. xii, 515. \$1.96.

This is a revision of the fourth volume of the Rugg Course for the Junior High School. The revision is in the nature of a condensation, with the chapters on "The Red Man and the White Man's Continent," "American Sports," and "The Lively Arts" omitted and other chapters shortened. Incidentally, this reviewer considered the chapter on "The Lively Arts" one of the best in the earlier volume. The new book consists of 515 pages, 26 chapters and nine units, as compared with the older volume's 635 pages, 29 chapters and ten units. The last chapter, "The United States since the World War," has been rewritten to bring the story through the election of 1936. Originally written as the second of two parallel treatments of American history for



the second year of the junior high school, the revised edition, we are told, "can be used, either alone or with *The Conquest of America: A History of American Civilization, Economic and Social*, as an up-to-date and comprehensive study of the history of the United States. In its revised form it is offered for use in any year of the secondary school" (p. v). This would seem to avoid the rather common criticism of the grade placement of the first Rugg books.

As was suggested in an earlier review (May), the teaching organization, style of presentation, illustrations and teaching devices of the Rugg books leave little to be desired. Without departing from an approach which is in general chronological, using political history as an organizing theme, geographical, economic, cultural, and social aspects of American life are given proper emphasis in an enriched narrative. Although the better pupils sometimes react unfavorably to Rugg's "planned repetition" as being overdone, on the whole the psychological and pedagogical approach is to be commended.

BURR W. PHILLIPS

University of Wisconsin

**Visualized Units in American History.** By James E. Downes, Russell E. Fraser, and Solomon Pikholtz. Supervised by Herbert D. A. Donovan. New York: College Entrance Book Co., 1937 (rev.) p. 320. 60c.

"This book," declares its preface, "is not offered as a substitute for the standard full-length texts; obviously such books have a value that the briefer treatment herein given could not give." It is intended, therefore, for use in review, supplementary drill, or an intensive short course. Its eleven topical chapters fit into a chronological whole. Citations are given to six senior high-school texts, somewhat arbitrarily selected. Much material is presented in tabular form, tests, review questions, and glossaries are provided, numerous cartoons are reproduced, and other visual aids used. The final chapter is devoted to principles of American

government. The appendix includes a "who's who," with one- or two-sentence characterizations.

E. M. H.

**History of the United States for Schools.** By Hubert R. Cornish and Thomas H. Hughes. New York: Hinds, Hayden, & Eldredge, 1936, pp. viii, 572, and appendices. \$1.29.

In this undistinguished history through the election of 1936, the plan of development is mainly chronological, although some attempt at topical treatment of social and economic material appears in the section treating the period since the Civil War. The topical parts are not always well organized. For instance, a chapter entitled "Government Control and Foreign Relations" (the title indicates a questionable grouping of materials) turns out to be an account of the Roosevelt, Taft, and part of the Wilson administrations. It includes such diverse items as "trust-busting," Panama Canal, Portsmouth Conference, conservation, Payne-Aldrich tariff, Postal Savings Bank, Mexican War, and Federal Reserve Act. This, in spite of the fact that an earlier chapter entitled "Solving the Problems of Government, 1880-1900" discusses such topics as the "Bland-Allison Act of 1890" (*sic*—in another chapter we learn that the "Bland Act" was passed in 1878 and the Sherman Act in 1890), problems of Cleveland's second administration, and the Open Door Policy.

The authors seem to have taken little note of the current perspective and emphasis in the teaching of history. This is noticeable in the proportionate emphasis of their volume. They devote 128 pages to the period before the Revolution; and 309 pages, or almost three-fifths of the book, are devoted to reaching the Civil War. On the other hand, they allocate only 42 pages to the tumultuous days since the World War but find 79 pages in which to report the military operations in America's wars.

Too often writers of textbooks ignore consideration of the vocabulary range of the students for whom the books are intended. The authors of this volume have made a noticeable effort to simplify their vocabulary. Nevertheless, a random check against E. L. Thorndike's *Century Junior Dictionary* shows a good many words above the ten thousand frequency level, which is too high for junior high-school students.

RUSSELL FRASER

High School  
East Orange, New Jersey

**The Pacific Area and Its Problems.** Edited by Donald R. Nugent and Reginald Bell. New York: The American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, 1936. Pp. 234. \$1.35.

One of the newer educational trends is shown in the organization of this work as a "study guide" rather than as a text. It offers a method for studying thirteen present-day problems in China, Japan, Siberia, Australasia, and Oceania. Text material on the subject is accumulating, but a study guide was needed. Teachers will welcome it; student groups discussing current affairs will find it invaluable. The compilers have the viewpoints of a junior college instructor and an associate professor of education in California, but the materials are not too difficult for high-school pupils. Each study has a preview of three to nine pages, giving basic facts and defining the problems, which is followed by an "outline," extensive set of "problems," "references," and a supplement of "special problems and projects." It is obviously an offspring of the "Morrison Plan" and an instrument for "self-teachings."

Users may find the previews overcrowded with data that the student should dig out for himself—this in spite of the assertion in the preface that these are "not intended to furnish materials for the solution of the problems." The outlines repeat the data of the previews, often with little reduction of verbiage. Should not a preview be a con-

cise statement of a situation, interpretive rather than factual, aimed at inciting the student to get the facts? Here the outline falls between preview and problems, overlapping each and functioning little. The "special problems" differ little from the others in type or in purpose. They run true to traditional forms, essays, biographies, oral reports, occasionally a map or graph. Many a current text offers more imaginative leads. Once history was largely political in content. Social and economic materials have elbowed the political until the latest texts boast in title and preface a social or economic approach. This guide book reflects this much of the trend, but it largely ignores growing interest in purely cultural factors of history. Since Pacific problems hinge on clashes of differing cultures, some attention might have been given to their essential differences. Such short comings, however, must not blind us to the pioneering service the compilers have rendered, nor to the fact that they offer not "just one more text" but a usable guide to existing materials.

HENRY C. FENN

Lincoln School  
Teachers College  
Columbia University

**The Development of China.** By Kenneth Scott Latourette. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1937. Pp. xii, 334. fifth ed. \$3.00.

A book that has run through five editions over a period of twenty years can be assumed to have met some general need. The first edition came in 1917, at a time when America's interest in China was heightened by the spread of the European War to the Far East. It provided a one-volume popular sketch of Chinese history and culture. In spite of the addition, since that time, of at least four excellent one-volume surveys of China, Dr Latourette's work still holds its own.

No one will question the author's fitness for his task. His years of experience in educational missionary work in China and the

scholarly mind which brought him to the chair of missions and oriental history in Yale University assure to the reader both adequacy and accuracy. He has in addition attained clarity and readability. The narrative is simple enough to meet the needs of junior and senior high-school pupils. At the same time it will prove satisfying to the average adult as a first reader in things Chinese. That it is not intended as more than an incitement is evidenced by the author's later and more comprehensive work in two volumes, *The Chinese, Their History and Culture* (New York: Macmillan, 1934) which has quickly become the standard American reference work on China. This fifth edition of *The Development of China* brings the chronology down to the close of 1936, with actual revision, however, practically restricted to the last two chapters. The reader may be grateful that of the first five chapters only two are predominantly political. One sketches China's course from her unification in the third century B.C. to modern times; the other traces her contacts with the European world. The remaining three chapters deal with the geographic setting of the country, its remote origins, and that enduring indigenous culture for which it is justly famed. This cultural stress will be welcomed particularly by teachers who would like to give China her place in their high-school survey of civilization but who lack the time to clarify her rather complicated course for four milleniums. Another merit in educational eyes is that the author does not, like some who have written specifically with a youthful audience in mind, talk down to the reader. Chapter vi, "The Transformation of China, 1894-1937," attempts to crowd the events of China's last half century into ninety-one pages. That the result does not read as fascinatingly as do earlier chapters must be attributed more to the kaleidoscopic nature of the changes through which China has passed in these decades rather than to ineptness on the part of the narrator. The last twenty-five pages,

devoted to present-day problems, make up to a large degree for the dryness of the preceding chapter. The reader is left with the feeling that, even though the present political drama defies understanding by the Western mind, certain threads of fate are traceable and may some day make an intelligible pattern.

HENRY C. FENN

Lincoln School  
Teachers College  
Columbia University

**The Papacy and World Affairs.** By Carl Conrad Eckhardt. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1937. Pp. xiv, 310. \$4.00.

The author of this study, who is professor of history at the University of Colorado, has written a brief account of what he calls "the secularization of politics." One slender thread of papal history since the feudal middle ages is pursued—the gradual abandonment of the civil-political mission undertaken by the popes in the West after the breakdown of the Roman state system. Seven hundred years ago the popes were feudal suzerains, judged and verified the powers of kings and emperors, dominated international relations in Christendom, and exercised a wide civil jurisdiction in western society. Since then politics has been secularized both in theory and practice, and the present pope, through the Lateran Accord of 1929, has committed the church "to remain extraneous to all temporal disputes between nations." The state has risen to maturity and might, and the church has retreated, step by step, cautiously and with frequent protests, from the arena of international politics.

The main substance of this book treats of the contentious issues of the seventeenth century, when this transition in the historical life of the papacy became manifest. In the Peace of Westphalia the western states affirmed their autonomy and enacted international legislation affecting important church interests without regard for papal views. Innocent X's protest had no effective



result, and the same fate befell a series of subsequent protests against exclusion of the curia from treaty negotiations that touched the status of ecclesiastical persons, sovereignties, and properties. As time passed these protests assumed more and more a purely formal character, merely recording the intransigent refusal of the popes to admit the principle of secular control over church affairs.

The author rightly sees all this as transition rather than decline in the life of the papal institution and recognizes that it has been accompanied by an increase of spiritual influence. He fears, however, that contemporary state totalitarianism is ushering in a new and grave conflict between the age-old antagonists. He has based his study upon a great mass of valuable materials, which are listed in an excellent bibliography; but, apart from minor detail data, he has turned to light nothing new. No student of papal history will be the wiser for reading these pages, which, I regret to add, are composed in a style that is dull, labored, pedantic, and almost insufferably repetitious.

ROSS J. S. HOFFMAN

New York University

**Zero Hour.** By Richard Freund. New York: Oxford Univ. Press, 1937. Pp. vi, 256. \$2.50.

"Wherever we follow the volcanic belt of the political world today . . . it is Great Britain, and she alone, who can prevent a disaster if it can be prevented at all." This is the theme of Richard Freund's guidebook to current international politics, an admirable piece of reporting, written with a dispassion that is refreshing.

One who looks for an optimistic view of today's world crisis will find little solace in this book. Instead, he will find a wealth of information in which the implication is clear and constant that international affairs have reached something near an impasse. Formidable powers lie already in their

trenches. The zero hour signal has been given. The high commands can not rescind the orders. War, if it comes, will come less as the result of willful acts of the future than of the cumulation of policies and acts of the past two decades. In the West, Europe's fate turns upon Franco-German relations. There, as elsewhere, Great Britain is the balance wheel. Germany once again is pursuing a foreign policy which, in spite of her peaceful professions, is rapidly placing her in a position from which she can challenge Europe to war. France is fearful alike for her security at home and her economic and political prestige in Eastern Europe. She meets each German move with countermove. "Follows the deadlock; then a lull while England tries to mediate; and after that the game begins at the beginning." In addition to mutual Franco-German mistrust, the author concludes that modern nationalism and traditional British foreign policy leave no room in Europe for two Great Powers.

The problem of Eastern Europe is aggravated by the pertinacity with which the Little Entente clings to its World War gains; by Germany's desire to expand politically and economically toward a "German India in the Middle East"; and by the ominous presence of the Soviet. Already Italy has taken her first bold step toward reviving the Roman Empire and making the Mediterranean a *mare nostrum* once more. Italy, like Germany, has, at least for the time being, successfully scrapped all the conventional rules of finance. Hence, the belief that she is too poor to pursue her imperialist design is no longer convincing. Her future is closely bound up with the foreign policies of Great Britain, France, and Germany. In the Far East Japan continues to arm, to spin her web of empire over China, and slowly but surely to close the Open Door. The United States has commenced to retreat from Asia by ceasing to demand observance of the Open Door and by withdrawing from the Philippines. This draws the issue in the Orient between

Great Britain and Japan. Again Russia is the unknown quantity.

The author casts the penetrating searchlight of careful analysis over the entire international world in a volume crammed with facts carefully arranged. He pieces together the eccentric bits of economics, nationalism, and diplomacy until the whole chaotic panorama stands out in bold relief. Although it is a "survey of world affairs as they present themselves to Great Britain," because it is uniquely straightforward, lucid, and complete, this book should be required reading for American teachers of history. It will also serve to good purpose as a reference work for more mature high-school students, and for those of the general public who wish to know what lies behind the morning's news.

RUSSELL FRASER

High School  
East Orange, New Jersey

**Force or Reason.** By Hans Kohn. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press, 1937. Pp. ix, 167. \$1.50.

**Anarchy or Hierarchy.** By Salvador de Madariaga. New York: Macmillan, 1937. Pp. 244. \$2.50.

These two volumes are uniquely contrasted. Both are written by Europeans intimately acquainted with conditions here as well as there; each seeks to give a reasoned answer to the dilemmas of the times. But here their similarity ends; for Professor Kohn defends with vigor and insight the liberal tradition now in the throes of a profound struggle with competing ideologies, while M. de Madariaga seems ready to abandon that tradition because of its apparent incapacity to confirm order within the state.

Professor Kohn deals with the "Cult of Force," the "Dethronement of Reason," and the "Crisis of Imperialism." Through each of his brief but searching chapters there runs a common thread, the conflict between nineteenth-century achievements

in freeing men from physical and intellectual serfdom and the postwar frustration of the spirit which made that liberation possible. In the face of the extension of power through science on a scale both faster and wider than man's intellectual capacity to control and direct the forces he had released, there has been a return to reliance on force to accomplish immediate ends of power, conceived by individuals hungry for its fruits, and without concern for the direction which the exercise of force may take mankind itself. Thus the reason which placed this power at the command of man has been deserted by men impatient of restraints and uncontrolled by reflection. The task of the future is to restore the sway of reason in the use of power, to cancel the abdication of reason in favor of force. The author traces the implications of this faith in the problems of domestic economic policy, international war, and the relations of East and the West.

Final answers are not sought; Professor Kohn has given us the spirit in which the problems may be faced. What is needed is, on the one hand, the scientific temper in social relations, and, on the other, tolerance to allow experiment to mature into social solidarity. Based on a searching analysis of nineteenth-century experience with the cults of force and unreason, exemplified by the men of action like Napoleon and Bismarck and by the philosophers like Wagner, Carlyle, and Nietzsche, he indicates with inescapable persuasiveness the failure of such ideas to offer a working program for a world united by common economic needs and facilities. He offers no panacea—but a powerful and moving argument for the validity of reason as faith and practice in the modern world.

M. de Madariaga's volume is an antithesis to the argument. Confronted by the same problem of force and unreason as the twin principles of contemporary politics, and concerned with the problem of order in an unordered world, he seeks in the principle of hierarchy an answer to the problem posed

by Professor Kohn. Himself a distinguished liberal, he has here more or less deserted the liberal faith and accepted the practices of the power-state. There is a note of regret running through the argument, but it is made none the less. The "natural structure" of the state is one in which the real aristocracy rules, the few who are capable as against the many who are impotent to know or to act correctly. Parties will disappear because there will be no need and so no place for debate upon policy. The press will be strictly controlled, the "government" will be paramount—and largely irresponsible. To what does all this amount, glossed though it is by a certain lip service to a vestigial democratic ideal in the name of which the new aristocracy is to rule, unless an incipient fascism? Is there not another and a more virile answer in practice—if the democratic faith is refreshed by a perspective of the force's failure ever to give us any long-run solution to our dilemmas? Will anything but reason give us a clue to the direction of the action we must take? To these questions M. de Madariaga offers pessimism and frustration for reply; Professor Kohn sets forth an experimental—and a workable—faith in the staying and solving power of democracy.

PHILLIPS BRADLEY

Amherst College

**Return from the U. S. S. R.** By André Gide.  
New York: Knopf, 1937. Pp. xvi, 94.  
\$1.00.

**Collectivism: A False Utopia.** By William H. Chamberlin. New York: Macmillan, 1937. Pp. vi, 265. \$2.00.

As one looks back over the period that has elapsed since the Great War to make the world safe for democracy, it would not be an exaggeration to conclude that democracy fell into a state of torpor. This was due paradoxically enough to the periods both of prosperity and of depression. The period of prosperity engendered a feeling that tomorrow would be as good, if not better, than today; the period of depression de-

veloped a lack of confidence in the ability of democratic governments to meet the demands of an unparalleled economic situation and directed attention to other forms of government which had arisen since the War and appeared to be better able to master the situation than did systems of representative government. On the one hand, some were impressed with the national solidarity, enthusiasm, and fanatical fervor that Fascism, and later National Socialism, were able to arouse—strikes and the threats of strikes were eliminated, unemployment was being reduced, streets were clean, railroads ran on time, and life was orderly and directed to the fulfilment of a new destiny. On the other hand, Communism was able to achieve all these ends but in the interests not of a class but of the proletariat; men like Lincoln Steffens saw in Soviet Russia the vision of a new future, and it worked. What those who rhapsodized either about Fascism or about Communism failed to see or, if they saw, endeavored to justify as merely transitional—revolutions knowing no compromise—was the cost at which the results that they acclaimed were achieved. Students of social change were so immersed in the immediate present that they either forgot or ignored the lessons of history and were ready to appraise favorably the achievements of the revolutions within a few years after they had taken place. To them it mattered little that the revolutions were denials of the supreme struggle of humanity throughout the ages for freedom—of person, of worship, of speech, of government. It mattered little also that those countries which had undergone the revolutions had never really experienced or understood the meaning of free institutions and of democratic government. The economic situation had been solved in favor either of the middle classes or of the proletariat, and that was enough. The fact that the Scandinavian countries, Great Britain, and Australia had been able to emerge from the depressions without sacrificing democratic ideals failed to carry conviction.



There is every indication that the worm is beginning to turn. There have already appeared during the present year at least half a dozen books which, in far more measured terms than those used by the apostles of -isms, draw up a fair balance of the gains and losses of totalitarian states and still find the balance in favor of democracies on all counts. As I pointed out in my *Making of Nazis* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935) the challenge to democratic ideals comes equally from Fascism, National Socialism, and Communism, and that viewed from this angle all totalitarian states, irrespective of their particular shibboleths, deliberately set out to destroy these ideals. Among the books which strike the new note are the two under review.

André Gide visited Russia as the land "where Utopia was in process of becoming reality" and came away disillusioned on what seems to him of paramount importance. "There are more important things in my mind than myself, more important than the U. S. S. R. These things are humanity, its destiny, and its culture." What disturbed him on his visit were the absence of a sense of humor, extraordinary uniformity in dress and mentality, the sinking of the individual in the mass, the lack of taste accompanied by unexacting demand for quality, the disindividualizing of every individual, the moulding of the spirit from earliest infancy ("everybody knows beforehand, once and for all, that on any and every subject there can only be one opinion. . . . Every morning the *Pravda* teaches them just what they should know and think and believe"), everyone whether worker or artist or official must "keep in the right line," and, finally, the naïve claims made for every achievement due in part to government propaganda and in part to ignorance of anything beyond the frontiers of the Soviet Union.

Gide's indictment of the Soviet Revolution is extended and discussed in greater detail by Chamberlin who rightly finds lit-

tle to distinguish Communism, Fascism, and National Socialism—not even the results for the individual from the different economic foundations adopted. Whereas Gide approaches the problem from the point of view of the artist and intellectual, Chamberlin deals with it more factually—and the indictment still remains the same. While Gide discusses the results, Chamberlin in a chapter on "The New Technique of Tyranny" shows how these results are attained. This chapter has for educators a particular appeal for the new technique "is based first of all on a recognition of the tremendous possibilities of state-monopolized propaganda in an age when most people go to school, read newspapers, listen to radio broadcasts, and attend the movies. . . . What the post-War dictatorship does is to harness the most modern devices of publicity to its propaganda chariot." Unlike those who see in totalitarianism a model to follow, Chamberlin sees in it a challenge to democracy to realize and understand itself. He is not blind to democracy's defects in the economic field and in industrial relations; he sees the menace to democratic societies in the war preparations of dictatorships and considers how it may be avoided; he examines the claims for socialism and finds them wanting. Referring to John Strachey's statement that the choice is between communism and barbarism Chamberlin, like Gide, puts his finger on the paramount issue of modern times. "Fortunately," he writes, "there is a more real alternative to barbarism than communism. This alternative is liberty. Liberty or barbarism: this is indeed the choice before the civilization of the twentieth century." Teachers of history and of social studies can profitably use both books.

I. L. KANDEL

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